The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 2, 1903.

The Week.

The *Evening Post* prints, from a trustworthy correspondent in Manila, an account of the brutalities practised upon Filipinos by a regular army officer, Capt. R. L. Howze. In this case the protests have come, not from any Anti-Imperialists or "calumniators of the army," but from army officers themselves, who are unwilling that the service shall bear the disgrace of Capt. Howze's acts without some effort to punish him. Graduates of West Point and veterans of many years have preferred the charges, and to Gen. Miles is due the credit for the careful probing of the matter. So far, the War Department has taken no action in the matter, and Capt. Howze still holds advanced rank in the Porto Rico Regiment, just as he received the grade of brigadier-general of volunteers for his alleged "brilliant services" in the Philippines. His case and others have been treated at length in Gen. Miles's report of his trip to the Philippines. But this report is the very one the War Department has suppressed, on the ground that it partakes of the nature of an inspection and is, therefore, confidential. Neither the public nor the service is thus to have an opportunity to learn the views of the Lieutenant-General and to judge of their correctness. We are informed that Gen. Miles does not confine himself merely to these cases, but that his opinions of the condition of the troops and their state of discipline would make extremely interesting if not sensational reading.

Gen. Wood has departed for the Philippines, but the scandal of the *jai alai* gambling establishment in Havana continues. It appears now that its franchise was granted for ten years, and that the interpretation given to it by the attorneys of the proprietors was confirmed by Gen. Wood in the *Official Gazette* of May 9, 1902. In Secretary Root's mind there seems to be no doubt that this concession was rightly bestowed because of the harmlessness of the game itself and its national character. But, as the game is played in Havana, it is merely a means to an end—to enable the syndicate to make enormous sums out of the open betting carried on. It is as if Messrs. Farrell and Canfield should start a handball court in this city, and take 10 per cent. of the bets placed upon the professional players employed by them. The game may be "national," but it is by no means so much so as cockfighting. Yet the latter has been stopped both in the Philippines and in Cuba. What would have been thought if Gen. Wood had licensed bullfighters in Havana and given them an exclusive ten years' privilege?

In commenting upon the formation of a general staff for the army, we expressed the opinion that it might become either a great benefit or a great injury to the service, according to the manner of its administration. Its protection from the blight of politics is so absolutely essential to its efficiency that it is gratifying to record Secretary Root's action in appointing a board of generals to select the officers who shall constitute it when it begins work in August. This is undoubtedly the fairest way in which the choice could be made, particularly as it has been feared in army circles that the officers nearest to the Secretary might be able to influence the selections in favor of themselves or their friends. Gen. Young's board has, moreover, given a striking proof of its desire to do its work on the basis of merit only, by inducing Mr. Root to rule that only such applications and endorsements of officers shall be considered as are forwarded through the regular military channels. This should prevent endless wire-pulling, and preserve the board from being overrun by the wives and sisters and Congressional friends of aspirants. The composition of the board—a remarkably strong one—is in itself sufficient guarantee that every officer of merit will be considered, even if now absent in the Philippines. If this policy is consistently pursued, these positions should be the greatest prizes in the army, and selection for them should, alone, attest the exceptionally high professional standing of the officers so honored.

At last both houses of the New York Legislature have been permitted to vote squarely on the question of submitting to the people a broad scheme of canal improvements. The result is the passage of the referendum bill by large majorities. This outcome is all the more striking from the fact that practically the entire legislative machinery was in the hands of men from the anti-canal counties, ready to do all in their power to delay and, if possible, defeat the bill. The Republicans in the Senate, when they act together, have a working majority, but of the thirty-two votes cast for the bill in that body only eleven came from the dominant party. Likewise, in the Assembly, but thirty-two of the eighty-nine Republicans favored the improvements. This circumstance is easily explained, since the Republican majority comes chiefly from the rural districts. That the Canal bill was able to make its way against opposition of this sort is, however, a remarkable proof of the vitality of its support. Of course, this is really due to the fact that the commercial supremacy of the State, as well as of the port of New York, is involved in the canal question. The passage of grain for export through New York has steadily fallen off from year to year as the Erie Canal has become a less and less efficient carrier in comparison with modern transportation facilities. Railroad improvements have progressed without interruption, but the canal has remained practically stationary since the sixties; the wasted expenditure of 1897 representing the only attempt at substantial betterment. But railway development has not enhanced the relative advantage of this port as a point of departure for foreign freights. Its tendency has, in fact, been exactly the contrary. With the water route practically abandoned, New York has been obliged to take its chances in railroad competition with Portland, Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Newport News, and even with Savannah.

These are the considerations which have induced the Legislature to propose to the people a bond issue of $101,000,000 for the purpose of improving the Erie and Champlain Canals so as to enable them to accommodate canal barges of 1,000-ton capacity, operated in fleets. Even in these days of great enterprises, the expenditure involved appears to be enormous. And so it is, but the project is surely no more stupendous than that of 1817, when, with a population of little over 1,000,000 persons, the State undertook to "open communication between the Hudson River, Mohawk River, Seneca River, and Lake Erie," and actually completed, by the autumn of 1825, a four-foot canal 363 miles long, with eighty-four locks, capable of passing boats of eighty tons capacity. "It is not to be supposed," said Mr. Carnegie not long ago, "that the city and State of New York will fail to protect their position by improving the weapon which New York State, alone of all the States, has in her waterway from the lakes to the port of New York." The action of the Legislature indicates that Mr. Carnegie was right.

If organized labor has ever gone into a more idiotic strike than that of the structural ironworkers on the subway, in this city, we cannot at the moment recall it. There is absolutely no local grievance. The men were at work under an agreement with the contractor, made last November, but this they have trampled upon, as if their word were no better than the mud in the gutters—and all for what? Why, the American Bridge Company, which furnishes material for

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the subway, is employing a few non-union men in Pittsburgh! That renders the iron "scab," of course, and the unionists here cannot consent to defile their hands by touching it. Hence the strike, in flat violation of their agreement, and hence the threat to call out 45,000 workmen to fight the American Bridge Company, the Steel Trust, and all creation. Two things are to be observed in connection with this senseless strike. One is that it comes hard upon the report of the Strike Commission, which spoke out so emphatically for the rights of the non-union laborer and called upon the unions to cease discriminating against him. We were told that this would have a great effect in diminishing the intolerance of labor unions; they would be more considerate of the free workman. Let the attitude of the ironworkers provide the fit comment on that prophecy. They are filled with hatred of the non-union man, and care not how much they inconvenience the public. This is the second thing to note about this strike: it sets the good of the city at open defiance. What do we care how long you have to wait for your subway? It used to be the selfish capitalist who said, "The public be d—d!" Organized labor has changed all that, and is now the great disregarder and curser of the public.

The State of Indiana seems to be a centre of disturbance in the field of organized labor. Dispatches from Indianapolis a few days since announced that the non-union men in the town of Anderson had formed an organization to protect themselves against the tyranny of the unions. This movement among independent workers seems to be spreading. Its declared objects are to oppose boycotts and blacklists; to improve the condition of wage workers by harmonious coöperation with employers; to compel public officers to enforce the law for the protection of all citizens; to provide an employment bureau for members, and in general to build up rather than break down American industry. A later dispatch tells us that the business men of Evansville, Ind., to the number of one hundred or more, have formed an anti-boycott league, to save themselves from the torments of organized labor. It is said that three boycotts are raging there now. The latest has been proclaimed against the Evansville Gas Company. In order to compel this company to accede to certain demands, the boycotters have ordered other employers of labor to stop using gas, under penalty of having their own employees "called out," although the latter have no complaints to make.

This is the sympathetic strike and the boycott combined. It proceeds on the hypothesis that the interests of the original strikers (the gas stokers), who must be a relatively small part of the inhabitants of Evansville, are of such transcendent importance that all other persons and things should give way to them; that all others should take up their fight without knowing its merits or even inquiring what it is about. The theory is, that if a sympathetic strike or a boycott depends upon reason or argument, you might as well abandon the system at once, because debate might go on forever. Therefore, if A makes a demand on B which is refused, C, D, and E must drop their own tools and join A in coercing B. If they refuse to do so, then all the rest of the alphabet must withhold patronage from A, C, D, and E. It is plain that if the rest of the alphabet assert their right to buy and sell where they please, to ride in street cars, to keep their gas meters, and to draw their breath in their accustomed way, boycotting will soon come to an end. We shall watch the outcome of the Evansville experiment as that of a new declaration of independence.

The burning question of the Chicago municipal campaign is the renewal of the street railway franchises, which are about expiring, and the granting of franchises for extensions. The north and west divisions of the city were under the firm control of Mr. Yerkes until he kindly removed the sphere of his influence to London. His Chicago belongings have fallen into the hands of the Elkins and Widener school of Philadelphians, of which Yerkes himself was a former head-master. Mayor Carter Harrison is understood to favor, in a mild way, municipal ownership of street railways and other public utilities, but the issue between himself and his Republican competitor in this particular is not sharply drawn. In fact, this question is not to be decided by the Mayor, but by the Common Council, and here the great Voters' League holds the commanding position. Astonishing as it may seem, the citizens of Chicago actually control the city government. No rings of capitalists, or of gamblers, no bosses, no syndicates have any power worth mentioning as against the great Voters' League. Neither Yerkes nor his successors, neither the Gas Trust nor the electric lighting people, neither city railways nor other railways, can buy a franchise in Chicago or procure one on terms that will not bear public investigation. The question is often asked how it happens that Chicago holds this unique position among the greater American cities. The reason is that for twenty years she has had an organized body of citizens, composed of both Republicans and Democrats, who have made municipal politics their chief concern, who have given their time and money and personal service without stint to civic duties. They have shown the same zeal in the purification of public life that the thieves and the thugs have displayed in its defilement. When they took up this work, the condition of city affairs was as bad as bad could be. Tammany Hall under Croker was no worse. The decent people are now so securely in the saddle that they have no fear of the result of any city election. Whether Harrison or Stewart shall be elected on the 7th of April, the Common Council will be the power behind the throne and above the throne, and it will be the representative of the great Voters' League.

Even such limited ballot reform as was provided in a bill drawn up by the Republican Committee of Pennsylvania has proved too much for the Legislature of that State, and the measure has been amended out of all resemblance to its original form. The grouping of candidates with the name of each appearing only once has been preserved thus far, however. Straight party voting is, of course, provided for. No restriction is placed on the use of voters' assistants—an evil as prevalent in Pennsylvania as in Delaware. In short, the promise of ballot reform, if carried out at all, is evidently to be fulfilled only in form, not in spirit. No mention whatever is now made of a personal registration law, without which it is quite certain the ballot in Pennsylvania can never be permanently purified. Meanwhile, nothing at all is heard of Quay, whose personal prowess has been so often described by his new friends, the reformers. No one who reads descriptions of Quay given by Gov. Pennypacker and other admirers, would doubt that the Pennsylvania Senator could pass a personal registration law as quickly as a franchise grab or a bill raiding the State treasury. The Philadelphia *Press* remarks sadly of the ballot bill that it is not what those who contended for ballot reform wanted, though it may furnish a "starting-point for the future." But it does not call on Quay for assistance. We wonder why not?

The football rules committee has adopted the principle of open play, and, as a guarantee of effective action at the next meeting, prohibits the use of sole-leather helmets by players. Heads are not hard enough for mass play as at present conducted, and, having deprived the player of his defensive casque, which was also a battering ram at need, they are bound to go further and release him from the obligation of knocking down a compact group of opponents with his head. All lovers of sport will commend this attitude of the rules committee, but will feel that the matter cannot rest at the point of good intentions. Two very simple changes in the rules will bring back the open game—first, the keeping of seven men in the line; sec-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ond; the increase of the distance to be gained in four downs from five to ten yards. This is the irreducible minimum of reform; and faculty committees and others in authority should spend the next fortnight in impressing the fact upon the rules committee.

Who could have expected to live to see protectionists chuckling over a great increase in the imports of those very goods which their tariff was designed to keep out? Yet it is "A Gratifying Showing," they now gleefully tell us, when the figures for the past eight months show large gains in the amount of hides, and wool, and iron, and steel brought into this country. The increases are, respectively, $9,000,000; $5,600,000, and $22,300,000. Ah! but these are all "manufacturers' materials," and the more of them that come to us the better. Then why did you clap on extra duties for the express purpose of excluding them? This protectionist joy is as belated as it is suspicious. In actual effect, under the present circumstances, these enlarged importations have at least three bad consequences. They raise the price to the consumer by the amount of the tariff tax; they make manufacturing just so much the more expensive, thus further disabling the American exporter from competing in the world market; and they throw needless millions more of customs revenue into the Treasury at the very moment when the banks and the general commercial situation can worst spare the money. All told, a "showing" indeed; but of a kind not flattering to the capacity of our tariff-makers.

The fall in British consols to the price of 90 may fairly be called a sensational event in finance. Consols, like other securities, have had their ups and downs. In 1870, for example, when the Franco-Prussian war aroused fear of English entanglement, consols went down to 88½, and they touched 84⅝ in 1866, the year of the Overend-Gurney panic. But no such price as 90 has been reached since 1870. Reasons for this decline are so well known as hardly to need recapitulation. Boer war expenses made necessary the issue, in the three past years, of $610,000,000 new Government stock by England. Supply had therefore increased heavily in the consols market at the hour when demand was reduced by suspension of purchases for the sinking fund. A Transvaal loan of $150,000,000, with a British Government guarantee, is about to issue, and will have to find lodgment in the very quarters where older supplies of consols are at present held. This situation coincides rather unluckily with the date fixed by Mr. Goschen, at the debt conversion of 1888, for automatic reduction, in the annual interest paid on consols, from 2¾ to 2½ per cent. There is nothing illogical in a fall in price, under such conditions, and perhaps nothing surprising even in the drop from 113, in the year before the Transvaal war, to the present 90. A peculiar interest is attached to present developments, however, because they are in a sense the sequel to a novel experiment in British finance. Never before 1901, we believe, did the British Government openly seek the aid of foreign syndicates in placing its public loans. Of the $300,000,000 consols issue of that year, it privately placed half with a New York and Continental syndicate, under whose auspices $50,000,000 to $100,000,000 was sold in the United States, and nearly as much in France. It adopted the same expedient, on a smaller scale, a year ago.

Sir Michael Hicks-Beach was unfavorably criticised for this policy at the time. He answered that such foreign support was requisite to avoid a very low issue price. The rejoinder of his critics was, that the consols market would be injured, later on, precisely as much as it had been helped at the time of issue. It was assumed that consols taken outside of England would presently be sold back; first, because English investors would naturally bid more for them; second, because the British Government charges the 6 per cent. British income tax against all holders of consols, home and foreign, and deducts that percentage from its interest remittances; third, because other markets, when in need of money, would undoubtedly resort first of all to consols as a means of raising it. All this has happened, as Sir Michael's critics said it would. It is not conclusive proof, however, that sales abroad were wrong; nor, for that matter, does it prove present valuations to be permanent. One striking aspect of the case is that while British 2½ per cents—they will bear that rate this week—sell now at 90, the law which authorizes $130,000,000 United States bonds to build the Isthmian Canal, stipulates that those bonds shall be 2 per cents, and shall not be sold for less than par.

Dispatches from Bloemfontein say that the representatives of the South African colonies have signed a convention providing for a 10 per cent. preference in customs duties in favor of Great Britain and of reciprocating British colonies. This is, very likely, a part of the arrangement made by Mr. Chamberlain—a *quid pro quo* for the British guarantee of the £15,000,000 loan for setting up the Boer provinces. It is not without significance to our trade with South Africa, which has grown largely in recent years, especially in agricultural and mining machinery. The preference shown to Great Britain is not to be complained of, however, since it is our own way of treating colonial trade; *vide* the discriminating export duty on Manila hemp, and our proposal that Cuba, which is nobody's colony as yet, shall bind herself to give us a preference in her tariff for five years.

The safe return of the *Morning*, with important news from the British exploring ship *Discovery*, illustrates once more the comparative safety of Antarctic exploration, hitherto unaccompanied by such tragedies as have taken place in the north polar seas. The *Morning* left London in July of last year, and, after taking on supplies at New Zealand, entered the ice regions in December. She seems to have had comparatively little trouble in reaching the *Discovery* and then returning with the tidings of Capt. Scott's great contribution to the world's knowledge. Sir Clements Markham, the highest authority, now agrees with him in believing that the greater part of the Antarctic region consists of a vast continent, for the exploration of which ships are useless. Besides the *Discovery*, there are two other ships at work in the Antarctic regions, the *Gauss*, carrying the German expedition under Erik von Drygalski, and Dr. Otto Nordenskiöld's *Antarctica*. The British success shows what may be accomplished when such expeditions are undertaken by trained explorers and scientists.

A fortnight ago the preaching monks of France were declared outlaws by the Chamber of Deputies, and now M. Combes's proscription is complete with a refusal to authorize the Carthusians, who follow the contemplative life and manufacture a famous cordial. Many associations gather about the mountain establishment of the Grande Chartreuse. The prosperity of the order is shared by all the surrounding country; it maintains, besides its main factory, many beneficent charities; finally, it seemed clear that, unlike other aristocratic orders, the Carthusians have no political animus, and have not been perniciously active against the republic. On such and on more sentimental grounds it was hoped that the Ministry might make an exception in the case of these monks, and grant their petition for authorization. Yet, in fact, M. Combes increased his majority on the vote to deny the petition, from about fifty to ninety. The total result, to date, of his application of the Associations Law is the suppression of all monastic congregations, except a few that originally applied for authorization; and the denial of the right to teach to all the religious orders, except a portion of the female orders conducting schools for girls. Waldeck-Rousseau probably meant to hold the Associations Law as a club over two or three notoriously disloyal orders; his successor is endeavoring to make France an impossible residence for the monastic clergy.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

THE REFUNDING SCHEME.

A circular has been issued by the Secretary of the Treasury for converting $100,000,000 of the 4 per cent. bonds which mature in 1907, and of the 3s of 1908, into new bonds running for thirty years at 2 per cent. interest. In a newspaper interview the Secretary explains that one great reason for taking this step is that it will provide a new lot of bonds as a basis for banknote circulation. The whole amount of bonds outstanding is not increased by this step, but the $100,000,000 thus extended will become, in one sense, permanent—that is, they will not be redeemable until 1933.

This operation was authorized by Congress three years ago. The act of March 14, 1900, reversed the fiscal policy of the Government, which had heretofore aimed at the shortest possible term of the interest-bearing debt. Anybody who examines the record of our war financiering and of the subsequent refunding operations, will perceive that both Congress and the Executive had invariably sought to keep the outstanding bonds within reach in order to redeem them and stop annual payments of interest. A conspicuous example of this policy was the refunding operation conducted by Secretary Windom in the Administration of President Garfield, when the 5 and 4½ per cents issued by Secretary Sherman under the refunding act of 1870 were about maturing. The Government did not have the money to pay them off, but the Secretary refused to extend them for any definite period. He made an arrangement with a syndicate of bankers by which he was enabled to offer the bondholders the option of being paid in cash, or having the bonds extended and made "redeemable at the pleasure of the United States," the rate of interest during the remaining years to be either 3 or 3½ per cent., according to a certain classification named. No new bonds were issued, but the old ones were stamped with the terms of the new agreement. Nearly all of these bonds were turned in by the holders and stamped in this way. Thus, when the Government had more money than it needed, it was not obliged to buy bonds in the market at a premium, or to deposit it in banks without interest. It was only necessary to call for a certain amount of bonds, and then redeem them and stop the interest.

There never was a valid reason why this plan should not have been followed through the entire term of the national debt; nor would anybody ever have conceived of a different policy but for the exigency of the national bank circulation. Nor would public opinion have tolerated any change of attitude in this regard had not other important events driven the money question out of politics. Mr. Bryan was beaten in the campaign of 1896, and the Democratic party, which had previously been very keen in criticising all financial measures, was divided, beaten, and cowed. Then the Spanish war came, and the questions relating to the acquisition of new territory superseded the old issues. Thus the Republican leaders felt that they had a free hand, and that they might deal with the bonded debt as they pleased. They did not want to keep the debt alive for the sake of the debt, but for the sake of the banks—and not for the sake of the banks *per se*, but for their note issues. They saw the penumbra of a declining circulation, and they were not prepared to deal with it in a scientific way. They did not take a favorable view of "assets currency." They thought that a solution of the currency problem might be staved off by extending the maturing bonds instead of redeeming them. Hence the refunding clause in the gold standard act of 1900. Under that act Secretary Gage refunded about $445,000,000 of 5s, 4s, and 3s maturing in 1904, 1907, and 1908 respectively, into 2s, running thirty years, and paid about $40,000,000 in premiums to the holders for the privilege of doing so. He discontinued the refunding operation on the last day of December, 1900; one of the reasons assigned for it being that the discontinuance would put the Government in better condition, either for purchase, or for payment of the remaining debt when due.

Looking at the present operation from the point of view of Government finance solely, it is quite indefensible, since it puts upon the taxpayers a burden of thirty years' interest at 2 per cent., which is 60 per cent., in place of, say, three years' interest at 4 per cent., which is 12 per cent. The 4 per cent. bonds maturing in 1907 amount to $233,000,000. If $100,000,000 of these are now refunded at 2 per cent., the interest for thirty years will be $60,000,000, as against $12,000,000 by the original plan of issue—a difference of $48,000,000 against the taxpayers, or of $46,000,000 after allowing for the 2 per cent. premium which Secretary Shaw says he will require the bondholders to pay. It is hardly necessary to say that, considered by itself, this is bad financiering, and that, apart from the national banknote question, it would be unthinkable. It is open to serious doubt, however, whether this attempt to eke out the present hidebound currency system will have the desired effect. At all events, it will not dispense Congress from the necessity of overhauling and amending that system at an early day.

FEDERAL BOARDS OF INQUIRY.

Among the recommendations of the Anthracite Strike Commission is a suggestion that the State and Federal Governments should provide machinery for the making of a compulsory investigation of difficulties similar to the one which the members were then pursuing. The object of such investigation is, of course, to obtain the facts in each case, so that public opinion may be enlightened and enabled to exercise an influence in settling the controversy. Most of the States already have some kind of apparatus for making these inquiries, but their labor commissions are generally composed of needy politicians, or of men so little known that their opinions carry no weight. In order to give any effect to an *enquête* of the kind, it must be committed to the hands of men of wide repute for intelligence, justice, and responsibility.

The first objection likely to be made to this method of dealing with strikes is the Constitutional one. What kind of labor troubles can the Federal Government deal with? The Commission refers to the "compulsory investigation of difficulties similar to the investigation which this Commission has made." This inquiry was not of a Federal or interstate character. In a secondary sense, the coal strike affected nearly all the people of the United States—that is, it curtailed their supply of one of the necessaries of life—but primarily it was a Pennsylvania affair exclusively. If the Federal Government might investigate it in such a way as to compel the attendance of witnesses, then it might do so in case of a strike among the cotton spinners at Fall River or the shoemakers of Lynn. The investigation of the anthracite coal strike was not made in pursuance of any law. There was no element of compulsion in it. Both sides came in voluntarily and agreed not only to supply the information called for, but to accept the decision of the investigators as binding upon them for three years. Of course, no objection could be raised by third parties to a commission thus called into being.

The Commission points to the act of Congress of October 1, 1888, and expresses the opinion that, with a few modifications, it might be made the basis of a law for such investigations. The purpose of the act in question is set forth in its title. It is limited to controversies and differences between railroad corporations and other common carriers engaged in interstate and Territorial transportation, and their employees. While limited to common carriers, it is certainly capable of extension, if Congress so chooses, to persons and corporations engaged in any kind of interstate or Territorial commerce. It is open to serious doubt whether it could be extended to the business of a single State.

The act of 1888 provides for two methods of procedure in cases of labor troubles of the specified kind. The first is arbitration, where both disputants agree to submit to a decision of that kind. The second is investigation, and is compulsory as against both parties to the controversy, though the finding of the Com-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

missioners is merely advisory. It is to be filed in the office of the Commissioner of Labor, who is directed to send a copy of it to the Secretary of the State or Territory in which the controversy exists. Whether Congress can clothe commissioners with power to investigate local disputes and compel the parties to give testimony and show their books, is perhaps not the most important question, however. If the dispute were one of great magnitude, if it were one "affected with a public interest" in a very wide sense, like the recent coal strike, the example before us shows pretty clearly that neither party to the contest would refuse the information sought. If either should refuse, the public would conclude that its case was a bad one, that it shunned the light of day, and the popular verdict would be cast against it for that reason. We think, therefore, that the suggestion of the Commission might properly and wisely be carried into effect, even without conferring compulsory powers on the investigators.

If such a commission could have been brought into existence last June, the report says, "we believe that the coal famine might have been averted—certainly the suffering and deprivation might have been greatly mitigated." Then, an estimate is given of the losses incurred by the various parties concerned. Those of the mine owners are estimated at $46,000,000; those of the mine employees at $25,000,000; and those of the transportation companies at $28,000,000. The losses of the mine owners are probably overestimated. Although their coal was not mined and sold, it is still in the ground, and is available for future sales. Their losses are simply the amount they had to pay for expenses, interest, and depreciation during the strike. The loss to the employees, was, however, total. The wages lost to-day cannot be made good to-morrow. The losses to the transportation companies were probably as much as $28,000,000, and this sum can never be recovered. The losses to the public were great but indeterminate. They reinforce the argument of the Commission for a Federal Board to take cognizance of labor difficulties of unusual magnitude. The act of 1888 designates the President of the United States as the person who shall tender the services of the Federal Board contemplated therein. He is, therefore, the one to determine the dimensions and character of the controversy calling for such treatment.

THE IRISH LAND BILL.

One can but sympathize with the high hopes expressed, both in England and in Ireland, that the new Irish Land bill may at last heal the open sore of turmoil and discontent in that country. Yet we have seen the Irish question "settled" too many times before to indulge in over-confidence now. One vitiating element in every former apparent solution certainly remains to-day to vex the situation. We refer, of course, to the malign influence of party politics. This it was which brought to nought Mr. Gladstone's heroic labors for the peace of Ireland, in his old age; and this, it may easily prove, will confuse and baffle Secretary Wyndham and Mr. Balfour. It is the verdict of a former Prime Minister that "the Irish question has never passed into history because it has never passed out of politics."

The political shoe is, to be sure, on the other party foot to-day. If there was any truth in the charge, so often flung in Mr. Gladstone's teeth, that he never woke to the need of doing something for Ireland until he also woke to the need of winning the Irish vote in the House of Commons, it surely could be retorted with tenfold force upon the Conservatives of the present day. The Nationalists may well boast that only because they have shown themselves to hold the balance of power in Parliament have they at last won a hearing from the man whose political reputation was made by harrying them as Irish Secretary. It is unfortunately true that the historic attitude of the English people has been, as Cobbett expressed it, to say to their own rulers, "Do what you please with the Irish, so long as you don't let them trouble our ease." There has always been, too, a strange and, as it were, congenital incapacity on the part of the English to so much as understand what Irish grievances are. This was once humorously stated by Sheridan, who said that the attitude of England towards Ireland was like that of a sergeant flogging an Irish soldier. First he cut the man across the back, and then, when the fellow protested at that, struck him across the legs, crying out, "Will nothing please you?" It is such a lack of racial sympathy, leading to misunderstandings on both sides and to the failure of so many attempts at conciliation, which was doubtless in Lord Rosebery's mind when he wrote:

> "It is difficult to avoid the impression that there has been throughout the past history of England and Ireland a malignant fate waving away every auspicious chance and blighting every opportunity of beneficence as it arises."

But the Balfour Government has chosen to believe that the ailment of Ireland is mainly economic, and that the conversion of some half-million tenant farmers into peasant landowners will gradually remove the racial and political incompatibility that keeps the two nations constantly at odds. Accordingly, Mr. Wyndham, encouraged by many of the prominent Irish Nationalists, has brought in a bill for voluntary land purchase more liberal and more sweeping than any previous relief measure. Mr. Gladstone's land acts of the early seventies, the Liberal act of 1881, the Tory bill carried through by Lord Ashbourne in 1885, the land-purchase clause of Mr. Gladstone's Home Rule bill in 1886, were all based on a common principle. The State advanced cash or credit (land stock) with which the tenants paid their landlords. The money for this advance it borrowed at a low rate of interest. It repaid itself by charging the tenant a higher rate of interest for a term of years, thus providing for the regular payment of its interest charges and for the gradual extinction of the principal under the familiar workings of a sinking fund. No previous Ministry has gone beyond this principle of loan and repayment, and, subject indeed to vexatious delays in adjusting prior mortgage liens and in searching titles, the earlier land-purchase plans have slowly increased the number of small holdings in fee simple.

While our information is still too scanty to admit of any detailed criticism of the financial features of Mr. Wyndham's bill, it is patent that it differs from all earlier ones in waiving full repayment, and offering a free grant of £12,000,000 to be applied towards reducing the cost of purchase to the tenants. This grant is directly traceable to Capt. Shawe-Taylor's conference between landlords and tenants. At that informal but memorable gathering the landlords stated what they were willing to take, the tenants what they were able to offer; and, finding a considerable discrepancy between the figures, they jointly petitioned the Government to make up the difference. One may assume the good faith and the general competence of the conference, and yet find that its recommendations lacked all the qualities of a compromise or bargain. X who asks 5 and Y who bids 3, can easily strike hands if Z will supply the missing 2. This friendly rôle of Z Mr. Balfour's Government has taken upon itself, and even should Mr. Wyndham's estimates of the economies of administration to be effected indirectly by the bill prove excessive, nobody can doubt that peace at £12,000,000 is cheap at the price.

Opposition will undoubtedly fix upon the very high valuation of the land and the excessively long period of repayment—sixty-eight and one-half years—as weak features of the bill. To the old adherents of Mr. Gladstone it will seem that the Government has borne too heavily upon an important but, after all, single element in a complicated situation, for which the real remedy is home rule. On the principle of not interfering with a notable deed of charity, such doubts may be suppressed. Partisan interests, however, are likely to supply Mr. Wyndham's candidacy for the succession of Saint Patrick with the requisite number of devil's advocates; and many who applaud the boldness and the generosity with which the Govern-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ment has staked its life upon this measure, will doubt if anything short of home rule will permanently content that sturdy group of Irish Nationalists who, as Mr. Bryce once wrote admiringly, "vote as one man, though capable of speaking enough for a thousand."

Extreme caution, not to say coldness, marks the attitude of the Irish press and leaders towards the Conservatives bearing gifts. The most they will say is that Secretary Wyndham means well, and that far be it from them to reject this friendly overture from an hereditary foe; but they would like, before committing themselves in the least, to see it "put in writing," as Alice in Wonderland has it. We suspect, also, that there is more in the Irish hesitation than this natural desire to study at leisure the bewildering details of an intricate measure. It was said that only two men in Great Britain really understood Mr. Gladstone's Land Bill—himself and Timothy Hèaly. Time may properly be asked now to master the new bill; but we think that the Nationalists are also waiting to see what is to go along with it. Are they to get the Catholic University for Ireland which Mr. Balfour has long favored personally, and which the Royal Commission on Education approved in its recent report? Are they also to have a further extension of local government—that is, home rule under some name intended to make it smell sweeter in Tory nostrils? All these matters, and more, are thought to be lying behind the first of the Government's Irish measures; and there is certainly enough in them to give the Irish people pause.

"PARSIFAL" IN AMERICA.

It was to be expected that the announcement of Mr. Conried's intention to produce "Parsifal" in this city next winter should cause a commotion at Bayreuth, and induce Mme. Cosima Wagner to denounce the project as "irreverent and illegal." Monopolists are apt to be tenacious of their claims, and "Parsifal" is at once the most extraordinary and the most profitable monopoly the world of music has ever seen. The last and, in some respects, the most interesting work of the greatest of all opera composers, it has been a Bayreuth specialty for two decades. Large sums have been repeatedly offered for permission to produce it in other cities, but Wagner's widow has always declined them emphatically, nay, indignantly. She even objects to having the opera produced in concert or oratorio form, without scenery, costume, and action; and when, last December, an Amsterdam society brought it out in this manner, a formal protest, signed by Karl Klindworth, Hans Richter, Felix Mottl, Engelbert Humperdinck, and others, was printed in the newspapers of Germany. On the other hand, the late Anton Seidl, second to none in his reverence for Wagner, saw nothing improper in such partial performances of "Parsifal," which he gave here repeatedly; nor did this prevent Mme. Wagner from inviting him to conduct this opera at Bayreuth.

Is it desirable to perpetuate the Bayreuth monopoly of "Parsifal"? To answer this question we must inquire, "Why was it ever created?" Why was the Wagner Theatre built in the small, inaccessible Bavarian town of Bayreuth? As everybody knows, this theatre was erected, before "Parsifal" was written, for the four dramas constituting the "Ring of the Nibelung." Long and painful experience had convinced Wagner that if he was ever to teach singers and players how to interpret correctly these music-dramas, so original in style, so utterly different from what had theretofore been known as opera, it could be done only in a theatre absolutely under his own control. The German opera houses, half a century ago, were in a deplorable condition. Wagner speaks of "the almost grotesque incorrectness" of the performances given in them, and this remark applied particularly to his own operas—to "The Flying Dutchman," "Tannhäuser," and "Lohengrin." In 1852, when he had already printed his Nibelung poems, "Lohengrin" was declared, at Leipsic, to contain insuperable difficulties; "and from most of the theatres," Wagner wrote to a friend, "the same complaints come in." It was one of his consolations, during his exile in Switzerland, that he was not obliged to listen to "the wretched performances" of his operas in Germany, which, he wrote, "would probably only break my heart."

Eight years later, when he received his amnesty, he would have been glad to give the managers of the German opera houses the advantages of his personal cooperation at rehearsals; but they declined it, without thanks. "They seemed to be," as he wrote, "particularly anxious to keep me from all contact with my works." In Berlin the intendant even refused to see him. Most of the conductors were hostile, while good and willing singers were few and scattered. Under such circumstances, a theatre of his own, at some place like Bayreuth, was practically a necessity. But—and here we reach the kernel of the question—Bayreuth was originally intended merely as a means to an end. There Wagner intended personally to train singers from all parts of the empire to interpret his works correctly, so that they might be able to do justice to them subsequently in their respective opera houses. Logically, therefore, Bayreuth, having done this work, had lost its reason to exist. But Wagner was somewhat inconsistent. Having built his theatre, he planned to reserve the Nibelung operas for it alone, and it was only because of the financial deficit of the first festival (1876) that he was induced to sell the performing rights to other theatres. He still distrusted those theatres, and rightly, for they were even then little disposed to listen to his counsels. But since that time there has been a complete change of front, and the German opera houses vie with one another in their efforts to perform his operas in exact accordance with his intentions. Had they shown the same disposition thirty years ago, he would promptly and gladly have given up his Bayreuth plan, which involved an endless amount of labor, anxiety, and expense.

If he had clung to his plan of reserving the Nibelung Tetralogy for Bayreuth, what a calamity it would have been for the musical world! Within the last quarter of a century those masterworks have been enjoyed by millions who would never have been able to go to Bayreuth. Yet "Parsifal" is in that predicament. It would be a shame to keep it always in a remote place where only rich tourists can see it. It cannot be denied that Wagner expressed the wish that "Parsifal" should be reserved for Bayreuth; but he also wrote, less than a year before his death, that if only the wealthy could enjoy the festival performances they must be pronounced a failure ("zur Unfruchtbarkeit verurtheilt"). His plans concerning the distribution of free tickets are being carried out in a very limited fashion. His widow is also ignoring his wishes in other respects. Whereas his main object was that the Bayreuth theatre should serve as a model for other opera houses, she gets angry if others follow its example, and two years ago she even threatened suit against Munich for building a theatre and arranging for performances exactly *à la* Bayreuth!

One of Wagner's objects in wishing to reserve "Parsifal" for Bayreuth was, as he wrote to the King of Bavaria, to have a sure source of income for his family. But, at the present day, the income of his heirs is, apart from Bayreuth, at least $100,000 a year, so that friends and admirers need not worry if Mr. Conried does break the "Parsifal" monopoly. The number of American visitors to Bayreuth will not be greatly decreased thereby, and in most European countries "Parsifal" is protected by copyright until 1913. The Bayreuth festivals are unique in many ways and will always attract tourists. At present they are even fashionable, and Mr Conried cannot change European fashions. The only remaining question as to the desirableness and propriety of producing "Parsifal" in New York concerns the ethics of copyright. Even if Mr. Conried refused to pay the usual royalties, the case would be different from the ordinary piracy of books or music. A parallel case would be a book that hundreds of thousands were anxious to read, but that was kept in manuscript in a remote town. But

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Mr. Conried is willing to pay the royalty, and more cannot be asked of him except that he should, as he doubtless will, follow the example of Bayreuth in staging Wagner's last work in such a way that its scenes will resemble paintings by the great masters.

THE SMALL PUBLISHER.

One of the more enterprising of our younger publishers, having recently allied himself with an older house, explains his action as follows:

> "The tendency of modern business has convinced me that it is only a question of time when a publisher doing a limited business, with an organization necessarily small, and without the advantage of periodicals under his direction, will be unable to compete successfully with a larger house having these accessories."

If this be a correct analysis of the situation—and the speaker, Mr. R. H. Russell, had staked the prospects of an agreeable and distinctive business upon its correctness—the small publisher will soon be extinct. Certainly the publishing trade has not escaped the common lot of consolidation. At present we see massed in, say, a couple of houses the traditions of some dozen older firms. Most of the latter, according to present standards, would be called small publishers. Furthermore, the recent joint action to maintain the market prices of books is a step towards the wider consolidation of the publishing interests. It is the "gentlemen's agreement" which precedes a formal merger. As to the general tendency there is no doubt; the question is, only, Will the trade become completely centralized, and the small publisher eventually disappear?

Before giving a definite answer, it should be recalled that publishing is more and more submitting itself to what may be described as the department-store idea. Since books are various and appeal to divers classes of readers, something of this sort of organization lies in the very nature of the business. But besides the classification according to subjects of books, and besides magazine and subscription-book departments and the retail book store, certain houses are adding, with considerable success, departments of fine and limited issues or of art reproductions. Here it is that the real conflict between the small and great publisher lies. So far as merely the making of the average marketable book is concerned, the small publisher is already an anachronism. He can hardly command the capital to take the risks of widely scattered ventures, and he no longer stands in intimate relations of good will, on the one hand, to a small group of authors, and, on the other, to a select body of book-buyers. The modern publisher has in his pay a score of authors where his predecessor had one; but none to-day could show to the casual visitor to his establishment such a group of lions as frequented the offices of Tonson, Bodley, and the elder Murray. Neither public dinners, nor royalties, nor profits of a kind these antediluvian bookmakers never dreamed of, can disguise the fact that publishing has become far less personal and far more of a business. Accordingly, it would be as foolish for a small company to embark upon the routine course of bookmaking as it would be for any of us to engage in the steel business with only the facilities of our own back yards.

The small publisher must, like the small merchant generally, make good his position by offering fine, or at least distinctive, products, and thus attracting a select clientèle. There will always be people who will forego something per cent. of discount for the comfort of buying books from a carefully chosen stock and in a well-ordered shop. And there are many bookbuyers who are on the lookout for beautifully made books, and for all new works that combine with novelty a certain distinction of tone. It would be easy to instance, both in England and America, many publishers who, starting in the most modest way, have, through care in the choice and manufacture of books, made a very enviable success. And this is said not so much of the private presses, which appeals to bibliophiles in the narrower sense, but of regular publishers, in the smaller as well as in the larger cities.

We cannot believe that the great houses will ever wholly occupy these pleasanter fields of the trade, or that the more personal kind of business will, when intelligently conducted, ever lack reasonable support. It is probable, indeed, that in the long run the small publisher will gain the most desirable kind of patronage. One often forgets that the great consolidations of all kinds depend very largely upon the creation of new classes of purchasers. Do, for example, Messrs. Durand-Ruel or Mr. Macbeth lose customers because prosperous "art departments" have been added to department stores? The case of the small publisher is simply that of all businesses which prefer a distinctive product, and a small but constant and remunerative patronage, to competing in the general market.

But this is certainly true: a new and previously unexampled publishing is arising, which adopts the methods of other great manufacturing enterprises. It employs the skill of thousands of specialists and littérateurs, but it cares no more for science or literature as such than the Smelting Trust, which keeps scores of scientists in pay, cares for pure science. In either case, it is volume of business, command of capital, knowledge of markets, and aggressive administrative capacity that count. Sales and profits loom necessarily higher than niceties of production. Unquestionably, a young publisher must to-day choose one road or the other; he must either ally himself with the great bookmakers, and pursue the roads of wholesale advertising that lead to their kind of success, or he must limit his monetary ambitions and trust his own ability gradually to assemble, often to educate, a public for his finer wares. This will, we hope, continue to seem an adequate reward. In the past, before the creation of a reading proletariat, such was the regular condition of success in publishing. We think that the trade itself, and readers least of all, could ill spare the small publisher.

A SIGN OF THE TIMES.

LONDON, March 20, 1903.

The recent elections in England, especially the elections at Woolwich and at Rye, have a twofold importance, the one transitory, the other permanent. Their momentary significance lies in the evidence they afford of the waning popularity and declining strength of Mr. Balfour's Cabinet. It is easy enough to make too much of bye-elections, but it is also easy to underrate their import. The safe rule for an observer who wishes merely to ascertain the truth, is to pay no attention to the minor considerations, such as the character or adroitness of particular candidates, local circumstances, and the like. These things, of course, influence every election, and tell for more than their intrinsic worth upon bye-elections. But since these special circumstances must, from the nature of things, favor now the Government and now the Opposition, and on the average favor each pretty equally, they may be set aside. The rejection of a candidate must be counted as a substantial defeat, or his success as a substantial victory, for the party to which he belongs. Attention, extending now over twenty years, to the result of electoral contests, has convinced me that this is the safe rule, and that when a set of bye-elections tend in one direction, they afford a fair index to the trend of public opinion. Personally, I do not see how it is possible to doubt that, at the present moment, the popularity of the Ministry and of the party which the Ministers lead, is on the decline. It is, however, possible that their popularity may be renewed either by the exercise of statesmanlike skill, or by occurrences which it is now impossible to foresee. What makes this state of things the more serious for the Unionists is that the Irish Land bill will, whatever its merits or its demerits, assuredly not add to the strength of the Cabinet. The proposed Land act will certainly impose additional pecuniary liabilities on England, and this at a moment when Englishmen feel that the burden of taxation is already heavy.

Let me add, before quitting the immediate and transitory aspect of the recent elections, that no one can be sure what will be the exact result of a loss of credit on the part of the Cabinet. We must put it side by side with the prestige acquired, at any rate for the moment, by Mr. Chamberlain. He has become the most prominent member of his party; his rise to a leading position has been, if you take his whole career, slow, but it has been uniform. He has all but passed from the position of

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

a distinguished party leader into the position of a national statesman. This transition, or transformation, which is traceable in the life of every man who has come to the first rank in English politics, is hard to define, but easy to perceive. Men past middle life, whose memory carries them back, say, to 1848, and who, pondering over the career of Lord Palmerston, and remembering how a man who was at one time the hero in foreign politics of a certain type of English Radicals, became, in his later days, the favorite of the nation, will note points of resemblance between the political fortunes of Palmerston and of Chamberlain. From these matters, however, which, after all, refer mainly to the ups and downs of party conflicts, and, while they excite much attention for the moment, are soon absolutely forgotten, it is well to turn to the permanent importance of electoral contests which appear at first sight to be determined simply by the chances of party warfare.

How great may be the essential importance of even a single election, may be seen from a careful consideration of the victory achieved by Mr. Crooks at Woolwich. His triumph, we are told, and probably with truth, was due in part to personal qualities; he was the sort of man, it is intimated, whom the electors liked. But this explanation of Mr. Crooks's success sends us back to the question, what was there in Mr. Crooks that pleased the electors? The reasonable answer, as far as an outside critic may venture on a conjecture, is that the confidence of the artisans was gained by their being convinced that Mr. Crooks was a man of vigor and character, who would perform the part of a genuine labor candidate, and support the policy and the legislation which the large class of wage-earners are, whether rightly or not, convinced will contribute to their prosperity. Mr. Crooks apparently was returned to Parliament just because he is, to use the language of fifty years ago, a Socialist, or, to use the political slang of to-day, a Collectivist. It is very probable that he holds no cut-and-dried economical or political doctrine, but it is certain that he will support all measures by which the power and the wealth of the State are used for the supposed benefit of artisans or laborers, and which will give them comforts, in the way of high wages or of cheap houses, that wage-earners could not, they conceive, obtain without some sort of State help.

That the Woolwich election marks the increasing influence of Collectivism, and that it is the sign that English politicians may at no distant date have to take account of the power exercised by an organized labor party, is made probable by several considerations. Mr. Crooks's Unionist opponent was not the most judicious or tactful of candidates; if common report speaks the truth, he tried to gain the vote of the working classes by promises or prophecies that a Unionist Ministry would give more employment to workingmen in the dockyards and in other Government establishments than would a Liberal Government. If such hopes were really held out, a patriotic critic may, whatever his politics, feel some satisfaction at their failure to attain their end. In any case, it is noteworthy that the Socialism of Mr. Crooks seems to have been met by appeals to the class interest of artisans, and this is surely a tribute of an ominous kind to the political power of workingmen, who are influenced, if not by theories, yet by ideas, akin to Socialism.

Consider, again, the effect of a bill which, almost at the very date of the election at Woolwich, passed through the House of Commons. It is termed the Outdoor Relief (Friendly Societies) Act, 1903, and extends the Outdoor Relief Friendly Societies Act, 1894. Take both together, and they constitute a serious and even a portentous inroad upon the attempt which lies at the very foundation of the New Poor Law of 1834 to restrict within the narrowest limits the use of outdoor relief. Under the act of 1894, as extended by the bill of 1903, persons who receive relief from any friendly society as sick pay will, unless the relief received is more than five shillings a week, be absolutely entitled to retain this pension though receiving outdoor relief. There will be at once created a body of privileged persons entitled in virtue of their status to the advantages, without the burden or the discredit, of recognized pauperism. Can any one doubt that such privileged classes will soon be increased? Can any one wonder that the representative of the great Charity Organization Society and any reformer who still believes in the economical principles of 1834 should protest against an attack on principles of poor relief, the application whereof some seventy years ago saved England from ruin? There surely is reason for alarm. Note, too, that the relaxation of the rules regulating poor relief is, whether justifiable or not, merely part of a widely spread movement. On every side may be seen legislation, the intended effect of which is to provide for the class of wage earners at the expense of the State —that is, of the taxpayers—benefits which workingmen could not, it is presumed, obtain for themselves by their own exertions. Of the wisdom or the folly of this policy it is not my object to say anything at this moment. My wish is only to note its existence. It flows, in part at any rate, from the increased political influence of artisans and laborers; it is due in part to a real and honest change in the convictions or sentiment of the public. It is the sign that a distinct party which pursues more or less socialistic aims is coming to the fore.

Assume that such a party obtains parliamentary representatives enough to turn by their votes critical parliamentary divisions; then, even though the labor party be small in numbers, its very existence will, we may conjecture, produce two important results. In the first place, the existing parliamentary leaders, to whatever party they may nominally belong, will assuredly bid against one another for the labor vote. That they will pursue this course is the more certain because it will be dictated, not only by self-interest and partisanship, but also by motives of a more creditable character. A Liberal who believes that modern Toryism is leading England to destruction, or a Unionist who is convinced that Home Rule in Ireland will be a deathblow to the strength of England and to the unity of the British Empire, may well think that it is right to make some concessions to Socialism in order to avert a public calamity. In the second place, the old Liberal party, in so far as it represents the individualism of the philosophic Radicals, of the Whigs, and of the Peelites, will gradually lose such hold on the nation as it still retains. Between Liberalism of the old type and Socialism there can be no permanent alliance. AN OBSERVER.

MADAME DE STAËL AND NAPOLEON.—I.

PARIS, March 11, 1903.

Napoleon's hostility to Madame de Staël has done as much for her reputation, or more, than her works ever did. The very title of a recent book, 'Madame de Staël et Napoléon,' by M. Paul Gautier, shows that public opinion views them almost as rivals in the great struggle for glory. Though Madame de Staël's life is in hardly any part unknown, M. Gautier has found means to write a large volume on her life, using, for this purpose, the archives of the Château de Broglie, those of Coppet (the residence of Madame de Staël on Lake Geneva), the national archives, and those of the Foreign Office. The late Duc de Broglie gave him access to a large number of interesting letters addressed to Madame de Staël, among others, by Joseph Bonaparte, Chateaubriand, and Talleyrand. He was allowed to see at Coppet the inedited letters of Necker to his daughter during the period of the Consulate.

When Gen. Bonaparte arrived in Paris on the 5th of December, 1797, with the Treaty of Campo Formio, which he was to present to the Directory, he sent an aide-de-camp to Talleyrand to ask him when he could be received. Talleyrand answered at once that he would receive him the next day, and immediately advised Madame de Staël, his friend, to be at the rendezvous.

"She burned with impatience," writes M. Gautier, "to view the features of the young General-in-Chief of the Army of Italy. He came back covered with the laurels of victory; he was, at the age of twenty-eight, the first warrior of Europe; people praised his courage, his disinterestedness, his love of liberty. He liked the philosophers and the poets; Garat said of him that he was 'a philosopher at the head of armies.' He read Ossian, which pleased his dreamy nature. . . . He detested luxury, lived simply, avoided ovations, which offended his modesty. In short, he seemed like one of Plutarch's heroes who was to give to modern times an example of antique virtues."

Gen. Bonaparte's reputation had inflamed the romantic imagination of Madame de Staël; as insects are attracted by light, she was attracted by all that was new and brilliant. Of an active and restless disposition, she liked men of action, whether they were legislators, diplomats, or soldiers; she threw herself into the midst of the intrigues, the agitations, the struggles of the time, and her violent interest in public affairs took easily the form of a romantic attachment for public men. Before Bonaparte had returned to Paris and while he was in Italy, Madame de Staël wrote several letters to him, full of admiration—so it is said, at least, in the 'Memorial of St. Helena,' and confirmed by a letter written after the death of Napoleon by Gen. Bertrand to King Joseph. These letters were never published, and have probably been destroyed. Bonaparte was in love with Josephine, his wife (the only woman, in fact, for whom he ever felt a real and lasting passion), and Madame de Staël, if we may believe the 'Memorial of St. Helena,' wrote to him that "it was a monstrous thing, this union of genius with an insignificant little

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Creole, incapable of appreciating him." Bourrienne, in his Memoirs (which, it must be said, are not considered a very trustworthy document) speaks of these enthusiastic letters. Bonaparte, he says, read fragments of them to him, and said laughingly: "Bourrienne, can you conceive such extravagance? This woman is mad! Just imagine, a *bel esprit*, a *faiseuse de sentiment*, comparing herself to Josephine. Bourrienne, I can't answer such letters."

At the meeting of Bonaparte with Talleyrand, the latter introduced Madame de Staël to him. "He paid little attention to her," says Talleyrand. "He had, however, an amiable word for her; told her that, on his way through Switzerland, he had called on her father Necker, and regretted not having found him." This short conversation took place in a large drawing-room, before the Minister's cabinet, filled with people anxious to see Bonaparte. A few days afterwards, Madame de Staël invited the General to a ball, but he did not go; he was instinctively afraid of the inconsiderate, imprudent character of Madame de Staël. He felt that she wished to find in him an instrument for her political aims, her ambition, the ambition of Benjamin Constant, the young Swiss who had linked his fortunes to those of Madame de Staël.

At a feast given by Talleyrand in honor of Bonaparte, Madame de Staël asked the General, in the midst of a large circle of people, who was, in his opinion, the first woman in the world, dead or living. Bonaparte answered with a smile: "The woman who has had most children." Another time Madame de Staël asked him (that was already after the 18th Brumaire), before many people, if he liked women. "Madame," answered Bonaparte, "I like my own"—upon which Madame herself exclaimed, before Lucien, "This answer was simply sublime; Epaminondas would not have answered differently." In reality, their two natures were not congenial. Madame de Staël was domineering, and Bonaparte was not the man to accept any domination. During the campaign in Egypt, distance added much to the halo with which the imagination of Madame de Staël had surrounded Bonaparte, and prevented direct contact, which had never been very happy. After Bonaparte's return, when a *coup d'état* against the Directory became imminent, Madame de Staël saw all her friends, Talleyrand, Sieyès, Daunou, Cabanis, Chénier, engaged in the plot. On the great day, the 18th Brumaire, Benjamin Constant, at Saint Cloud, sent her news from hour to hour. She soon persuaded herself that the triumph of Bonaparte was the triumph of liberty. She wrote enthusiastic letters to her father: a new era was beginning. She obtained for Benjamin Constant a place in the newly formed Tribunate.

Madame de Staël, however, was not long in perceiving that the new régime was not the era of perfect liberty which was her dream; and she entered the ranks of the opposition to the First Consul, who was assuming by degrees a dictatorial power. The Tribunate was the centre of this opposition, and Benjamin Constant was one of its most gifted members. He was one of three whom Bonaparte liked to qualify as *idéologues*. A speech made by him in the Tribunate, in which he denounced "an uneasy and boundless impatience" and the desire of the Government "to go through the examination of the Tribunate as through a foreign army," made Bonaparte very angry, and he turned his wrath against Madame de Staël as well as against Constant. From that date, all was over between the First Consul and Madame de Staël. In vain did she try to see him; he avoided her. He spoke very severely of her in his letters to his brother Joseph; he had shut his house to many of the friends of his wife Josephine; he considered scandalous the contempt shown by Madame de Staël for the common ways of the bourgeoisie, and the publicity which she gave to her relations with Benjamin Constant.

In April, 1800, Madame de Staël published a book entitled 'De la Littérature, considérée dans ses Rapports avec les Institutions Sociales.' As M. Paul Gautier justly says, every book of Madame de Staël's is an act. The volume, written apparently as a philosophical defence of the doctrine of human perfectibility, was, if you look beneath its phraseology, a protest against the First Consul made in the name of the Revolution. Bonaparte had not yet fought the battle of Marengo; he remained silent, but his hostility to Madame de Staël became deeper.

When Bonaparte was on his way to Italy, Madame de Staël's sentiments may be guessed from what she wrote afterwards: "The good of France required that she should suffer at that moment some reverses." However, when Bonaparte comes back, after Marengo, she writes to Madame Récamier: "This man has a will which uplifts the world." She soon saw Bonaparte acclaimed, almost deified; the hero became a peacemaker, and made the treaty of Lunéville. In reality, she had never ceased to feel great enthusiasm for him, and could not console herself for his indifference to her. She says to Lucien, almost with tears: "I become stupid before your brother, so much do I desire to please him. . . . I want to force him to occupy himself with me." Bonaparte, to whom Lucien reports these words, laughs, and says: "I see:

'Son génie étonné tremble devant le mien.' "

The year 1801 was, for Madame de Staël, a series of festivals and amusements. She stayed some time in Switzerland with her father, described to him the dangers which threatened liberty in France, and induced him to write his "latest views of politics and finance." Napoleon made peace with England in October, 1801, and his popularity was for a time as great in England as it was in France. In January, 1802, he eliminated from the Tribunate twenty members who made opposition to him, among them Benjamin Constant. Madame de Staël began against him an open war of epigrams. Bonaparte sent her some advice by Talleyrand, by his brothers Lucien and Joseph: "Tell this woman, Her Illustration, that I am neither a Louis XVI., nor a Larévellière-Lépeaux, nor a Barras. Tell her not to stand in my way, wherever I want to go; otherwise, *je la briserai*." He added: "I will never do her any harm needlessly."

Three weeks after the signing of the Peace of Amiens, on Easter Day, April 18, 1802, Paris heard the news of the Concordat signed between France and the Pope. Madame de Staël was greatly incensed at the official reconciliation of France with the Papacy. She shut her windows while Bonaparte went in great state to Notre Dame amid the acclamations of the people. She speaks, in her 'Considerations on the French Revolution,' of the "ancient coaches of the monarchy used on that day, the same coachmen, the same footmen," of the army of the Republic forming the escort; and she recalls the words of Milton: "We are to become the opprobrium of free nations." Madame de Staël was not an enemy of religion, but during the Directory she had hoped to establish Protestantism as the State religion. She was a good Calvinist. She told the republicans that "Protestantism was the only means of destroying the influence of the Catholic religion, and that, as a state religion, it would inherit the influence possessed by Catholicism."

Correspondence.

THE CERTIFICATE SYSTEM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As Regent of Radcliffe College, I was often asked to permit candidates to enter on certificate. It is unnecessary to say that it was impossible to do this, because Harvard College does not admit on certificate. To the question why a candidate wished to enter on certificate, the usual reply was, "Because it is easier"—a reason that I could easily show was unworthy of a really earnest student.

I once asked a teacher of high rank about two boys who had been sent to college by his institution, second to none in America. "John took examination and entered with credit," he said. He went to a college that recognized no certificates. "Will—well, he was the sort of a boy that you could give a certificate to, and we sent him to —— College"—one that receives without examination.

"If they do these things in the green tree, what shall be done in the dry?"

Arthur Gilman.

Cambridge, Mass., March 27, 1903.

THE PROS AND CONS OF CO-EDUCATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Owing to the action of Chicago University, there has arisen in the last few months a lively discussion of the problem of co-education. Such a discussion naturally calls forth the opinions of persons who at least know what they think. I fancy, however, that there are many vitally interested in educational matters who, like myself, do not know what they think about this important subject.

Nevertheless, I have had many opportunities to observe and form opinions. My undergraduate course was taken in a co-educational college. My graduate studies were carried on in Europe. I have taught for twenty years; ten of these years were spent in three different co-educational institutions, ten in a college for men only. This college has, however, an annex after the manner of Barnard, in which I have usually taught one class. Further, I have had a consuming interest in the subject ever since my own years as an undergraduate, have observed much and read much, and have asked countless questions of others about this theme. Now, after more than twenty years of experience, observa-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

tion, and reflection, I should be delighted if I were only in the position of those who know so decidedly what they think.

As it is, I am "on the fence." I climbed up there when I was professor at one of the best known co-educational colleges in the whole country. My transfer to a college for men did not enable me to get down on either side, and I am still "on the fence" because I believe the problem incapable of complete and final solution in this generation.

We must draw a strict line of demarcation between the common schools (including private of the same grade) and secondary schools on the one side and the college on the other. The arguments for or against co-education in the one kind of school have no validity applied to the other. The fundamental difference is that in the lower and secondary schools the pupil is still under the direct care and charge of his parents. Home life and discipline are still the main factors in his life. Even in the last years of the grammar grades and the whole of the high school, where the problem of sex begins to play a rôle with the coming of adolescence, the situation is not essentially altered. In the college, however, the whole state of affairs changes. Home life and discipline are only memories. Except in grosser breaches of decorum, where the state or the college steps in to punish, the student is left for the practical conduct of life to the guidance of his own judgment and conscience, though aided, it is true, to a greater or less extent, by the influence of the church and the conventions of society. In the co-educational question as applied to the college, therefore, the problem of sex is all important. It goes without saying that my uncertainty applies only to collegiate co-education.

Now, while I am "on the fence" as regards the whole question, there are certain things which I do know as the result of these years of observation.

In the first place, the charge that co-education means greater moral risk for the young women is arrant nonsense. Cases of moral lapse doubtless occur in co-educational colleges, but so they do among young people from the same classes of society who do not go to college, and relatively far more frequently. It isn't the co-educational girl who is given to doing risky things. It is true that the college is occasionally obliged to administer quietly severe discipline, even expulsion; but personally I never aided in the administration of discipline in a case where there was evidence of any actual moral delinquency, although such cases are said to arise at long intervals. Man is usually the tempter and woman the sufferer in all affairs of this kind. Society lets the man go scot free and punishes the woman. The co-educational college, for the protection of the girls, must punish where society would hardly begin to gossip, but it is also juster in that it punishes both sexes alike.

On the other hand, the alleged improvement in the manners and morals of the boys in the co-educational college is equally mythical. It is an argument based upon the supposed refined and gentle influence of the fair sex, of which we have heard much from the days of chivalry on. It was a sham then, and is a sham now.

Another wholly groundless charge is the early and improvident co-educational marriage. Here again the contrary is rather true, if comparison be made with marriages in ordinary life. Co-education means considerable acquaintance with the faults and failings of the other sex, and that does not of itself accelerate marriage.

Equally groundless is the statement that the co-educational college spoils the manners of the girls, making them coarse, mannish, and boisterous, while the separate college for women refines and polishes. On this latter point I shall have something to say farther on. Before you can pass judgment upon the manners of the students of the co-educational college, you must first observe the homes and communities from which they come. This is the only fair test. That is, you must compare the co-educational girl, or, for that matter, the finishing-school girl, not with some ideal and perhaps impossible standard, but with the other girls from the same classes of society and the same communities who remain at home. Having done that, no fair-minded person who uses his own eyes and ears can fail to acquit the co-educational college of the charge.

The attendance of young women does not lower the scholarly tone of the college. My own experience goes to show that the average young woman does the work in most subjects of the college curriculum rather better than the average young man. Other teachers have made the same statement to me. As the college, whether co-educational or not, really conducts its undergraduate work on the plane of the average, or less than average, student, it follows that the girls rather tend to force up the average work of a class. This is true, at least, in such subjects as language, history, etc. In certain of the sciences which seem not to appeal to the feminine mind, a contrary statement is possibly true. And here comes one of the paradoxes: I have never had a mixed class in which the most capable member was not a young man. It will be observed that I am speaking of the scholarship of the undergraduate college, not of more advanced study. In the latter, the world over, the presence of woman is so recent that the data are wholly insufficient for proper judgment.

As my foregoing *ex-cathedra* statements, with the exception of one, all confirm the stock argument of the co-educationalist, it may seem strange that I am "on the fence." The mere fact that the manners and morals of the boys are not helped by co-education is certainly no argument against it. If neither boys nor girls are hurt by co-education, why not educate them together? And then I fall back on my three negatives.

In the first place, co-education requires machinery for the proper control of the two sexes. The larger the proportion of girls, the more is machinery necessary. It is probable that increased restrictions will be demanded by public sentiment as our civilization grows more complicated and artificial. In some co-educational institutions, perhaps the most successful, the creak of the machinery is already pretty loud. Is it worth while?

And then the second query. Is the relation of man and woman in the co-educational college a natural one? There is nothing like it in after life. Nowhere else do men and women associate with so many of the other sex with anything like so much of sexless equality, competition, or comradeship, if you will. And if it is a relation that exists neither before nor afterwards, is it natural and wise?

The last consideration is the "eternal-feminine." I do not mean thereby that woman, as prospective wife and mother, needs definite training in certain lines which do not concern man. That may be true and nevertheless affect in nowise the problem of co-education. There are, however, two phases of the "eternal-feminine" which certainly do concern the problem. In the first place, the presence of woman in the class room may very seriously hamper the teacher. In many departments there are important subjects which cannot be discussed in a mixed class. Literature and history, to mention no more of the departments of study which particularly appeal to women, are full of them. This is, of course, only a minor consideration. The other phase is more serious, or less, as you take it. Are men and women so alike that they need the same education? Is the intellect sexless? Is there no essential difference between man and woman save that the one begets and the other bears children?

And now for the comment about wholly separate colleges for women. This talk of girls being brought to the heights of gentleness and good breeding by women teachers who are the flower of their kind sounds very nice, but it has one practical difficulty: at present those gifted teachers are not to be had in sufficient numbers. Everybody who has had experience in the matter knows how difficult it is to find women teachers with adequate intellectual training who are not more or less caricatures of their sex. Time will, of course, remedy the difficulty, if the separate college is to become an increasingly large factor; but at present the average woman teacher of collegiate rank is much farther from being a woman among women than her male colleague from being a man among men.

Undoubtedly co-education has done and is doing a great and needed work. The same statement is true of separate education. Is it not the part of wisdom to cease to be dogmatic about either, to recognize the fact that there are elements in the problem which are not yet worked out, and to let the future settle what belongs to the future?

R. O.

FOREIGN STUDENTS IN ITALY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It may be of interest to many of your readers who are likely to travel and study in Italy, to have attention called to the fact that new and much stricter regulations are now in force in this kingdom regarding the granting of *permessi* for free admission to museums, picture galleries, and other national institutions and monuments. Students and professors in the various foreign archæological and art schools established in Italy can still secure such *permessi* upon application by the heads of the respective schools; but other foreign artists or professors of archæology, history, literature, or art must present to the Ministry of Public Instruction, with a formal request for the *permesso*, some "academic document" to prove their status; and furthermore this document must have affixed the *visé* of the Italian diplomatic representative, or of some Italian consul in the country of which the applicant is a

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

citizen, or else must be certified by the diplomatic representative of that country at the court of Italy. But students of the history or criticism of art (presumably archæology is included) may submit in place of this certified "academic document" a copy of some article on the subject that they have published. Students of foreign universities must present a document showing that they are duly enrolled as students of their respective universities during the (presumably calendar) year in which they make application for the *permesso*, and this document must be certified in one of the ways just mentioned.

All applications for *permessi* available for the whole of Italy must be made to the Ministry of Public Instruction at Rome upon official stamped paper *(carta bollata)* at one lira and twenty centesimi the sheet. This can be bought in Italy at post-offices and at shops for stationery or tobacco. With the application must be sent an unmounted photograph of the applicant not more than five by eight centimetres (two by three and one-eighth inches) in size. But if the *permesso* desired is for only one particular city, the application may be made to the head of one of the local institutions on stamped paper of sixty centesimi per sheet, and unless the *permesso* is to be valid for more than a month the application need not be accompanied by a photograph.

These somewhat troublesome regulations have now taken the place of the very liberal provisions that have been in force since 1885. E. T. M.

Pompeii, March 7, 1903.

THE GERMANIC MUSEUM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: According to the *New-Yorker Staats-Zeitung* of March 24, present, Prof. Kuno Francke of Harvard, in telling the German Society of Columbia University, the evening before, about the Germanic Museum at Cambridge, Massachusetts, while admitting the advantage it would have had in New York as its residence, because it would there reach a larger public, found this profit in Cambridge:

"Cambridge was the capital of Puritanism. The Germanic Museum at Cambridge would be the sentry-box for the outposts in the war against that Puritanism. The making a citadel of this sentry-box would depend on the coöperation of all friends of historic Germanism, German industrial activity, and German art."

Will Professor Francke allow me to venture upon the liberty of asking him to define in the columns of the *Nation* this present-day Puritanism, centring in Cambridge, which he wishes to see exterminated? The question is asked not out of loyalty to Puritanism (I was born and bred in the South), but out of lively curiosity.

A. D. Savage.

New York, March 24, 1903.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am very much indebted to Mr. Savage for having called my attention to the unfortunate distortion, by a reporter of the *Staats-Zeitung*, of certain remarks made by me before a Columbia audience. It is true that I called our Germanic Museum a sentry-box, and that I expressed the hope of seeing it develop into a citadel. But it never occurred to me that this figure of speech could be misunderstood as implying so absurd a thing as aggression against Puritanism. What I meant to express by that metaphor was that the local surroundings of this museum, its separation from a large German-speaking community, its intimate connection with a university of distinctively Puritan inheritances, could not help giving added emphasis to the mission which, in my opinion, this museum has to perform—the mission of uniting Americans of English and of German stock in the cultivation of their common Germanic traditions, and in the warfare, not against Puritanism, but against racial misunderstandings. Kuno Francke.

Cambridge, March 26, 1903.

DR. MARTINEAU'S AMERICAN CORRESPONDENCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your review of Drummond's 'Martineau,' the reviewer says that "we should have had here his [Martineau's] letters to Dr. Furness and Dr. J. H. Allen." It may interest your readers to know that all of Dr. Martineau's letters to Dr. Allen, which he had preserved, were communicated by me to the Colonial Society of Massachusetts, and will appear in the forthcoming volume of the Society's Transactions, which is in the hands of the indexer. The correspondence ranges in date from 1853 to 1897, and includes some interesting letters, written during the civil war, which reflect the opinions of a large and intelligent class of Englishmen.

Henry H. Edes.

Boston, March 27, 1903.

ORANGE EATING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Many years ago our Minister to Paraguay and Uruguay taught me the right way to eat an orange—the way they do it in South America. You pare it, except a bit at the two poles, you cut it in two in the diameter, and then (first adding sugar if you like) you eat the two cups thus formed, or a good part of them. It is the only way to get the full flavor and the delicious coolness of the fruit at its best. To eat an orange with a silver spoon is most unscientific: silver is a good conductor of heat, and the modicum of juice that is thus obtained has been rendered nauseatingly warm, and also lacks taste on account of its small amount. I have been waiting impatiently to see the South American fashion become the common one in this country, and now that it has been described in the *Nation* (or what is practically the same thing) by Professor Lanman, in the course of his interesting letter from Jamaica, I have good hope that the custom will spread. C. L. F.

Notes.

"The gratitude of Orientals" is a quality handsomely illustrated, on its positive side, towards Americans who have been pioneers of education in China and Japan. The Japanese friends and former pupils of the late Mr. Edward H. House, the unselfish champion of the rights of Japan before the world, for many years a teacher of English literature in Tokio, who organized the first orchestra and gave the first orchestral concerts in Japan, propose to rear some memorial to commemorate his work and personality. A House Memorial Lectureship in English Literature and Music is to be established in order to promote the study and appreciation of these subjects in Japan. The funds will be under the direction of the Imperial University, or, if large enough, be divided with the Academy of Music in Tokio. Literary men or musicians living in Japan or visiting the country may thus be induced to give lectures or concerts from time to time. Some of the men prominent in public life, formerly pupils of Mr. House, have already made subscriptions, but the list is open to all his friends, as to all who favor the enterprise. Professor N. Kojima of the First High School (Koto Grakko), or Dr. K. Mitsukuri of the Imperial University, both of Tokio, will receive subscriptions.

Charles Scribner's Sons are about issuing (in connection with Duckworth & Co., London) 'Michael Angelo Buonarroti,' by Charles Holroyd, keeper of the National Gallery of British Art; and 'Middle-Aged Love Stories,' by Josephine Dodge Daskam.

Frederick A. Stokes Co. have in press Bismarck's correspondence with the Emperor William I., and 'Ordered to China,' private letters from the late Wilbur J. Chamberlin, the New York *Sun's* correspondent during the Boxer troubles.

'Wreaths of Song,' announced by the Abbey Press, is from the pen of the Rev. T. J. O'Mahony, D.D., All Hallows College, Dublin, a nephew of Father Prout.

We hardly knew what to expect of Professor Royce's introduction to Fiske's Cosmic Philosophy in the new four-volume edition (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), for surely if anything is foreign to Royce's thought, it is Fiske's. It proves to be, without exception, the best introduction to a nineteenth-century philosophy that we have seen. In skill, the comment is a good match to the text. It renders Fiske's work much more useful than it has been, by pointing out just what there is in it and where its originality comes in. It fills about a hundred and fifty pages easily read, easily referred to. As compared to Spencer's own encyclopædic instrument of torture, Fiske's lively treatise always had a vast advantage as a way of making acquaintance with the fundamental philosophical doctrines of the evolutionary pioneer; and this advantage is now increased by the attractiveness of the new edition, which we were almost tempted to pronounce the most pleasing dress in which any American book of philosophy has ever been arrayed. That, however, would be forbidden, if by nothing else, by one volume from the same Riverside Press: we mean the elder James's 'Substance and Shadow'—a book not to be forgotten on any account.

We have received through Charles Scribner's Sons 'Volcanic Studies in Many Lands,' by Tempest Anderson, an investigator well known by his researches in volcanic phenomena, especially in the Neapolitan field, and latterly appointed one of the representatives of the Royal Society of London to report upon the eruptions of La Soufrière and Mont Pelée. Mr. Anderson's work, as heretofore, is mainly of a photographic

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

nature, and consists primarily of a large number of photographic reproductions—hardly up to the best standard of process-work—of more or less interesting phases of volcanic activity which were personally observed, and whose characteristics were noted. In so far, the collection is an interesting one, and will doubtless be frequently consulted for reference. The text is brief, and hardly more than explanatory of the plates. The observations or illustrated studies, with many of which geologists have long been familiar, range from the Mediterranean region through the Auvergne, Canary Islands, Iceland, Germany, and Ireland to Arizona and the Yellowstone National Park. Some interesting views of the recent eruptions in St. Vincent and Martinique are added. The volume is handsomely got up.

It is difficult to realize how even the necessities of an "Expansion of the Republic" series should have warranted the publication of so garbled, half-baked, and thoroughly unsatisfactory a piece of work as Van Middeldyk's 'History of Puerto Rico' (Appletons). The editorial commendation given it by Dr. Brumbaugh, than whom no one is better qualified to speak, is intelligible (though not pardonable) upon the theory that a sincere friend of the island may have thought any book on Porto Rico better than no book at all. Judged by any less relative standard, the volume is a wasteful, irritating piece of bookmaking. A full translation of Fra Inigo would have served a far more useful purpose, even though we should have lacked the "new arms of Puerto Rico" of the titlepage woodcut, and the stale San Juan shop photographs that serve as illustrations of the present work.

In her 'Survey of Russian Literature, with Selections' (The Chautauqua Press), Miss Isabel F. Hapgood aims to give an epitome of the views of Russian critics on the history of their literature. (In the later pages, for instance, we note the influence of Skabitchevsky.) By this method she has produced a manual which will be more useful to the general reader than Waliszewski's more individual and more whimsical volume. Miss Hapgood seems nearly always accurate in her statements of fact. She has also observed a good proportion, although a fuller statement of Russian social conditions would not have swelled unduly the size of the volume. Her selections are in general well chosen; those from Turgeneff and Tolstoy, however, may be thought superfluous, and not to be preferred to more thorough criticism of the two men. Exception may also be taken to the interesting personal reminiscences which appear in the later chapters, as out of place in a work of this character. The book may be commended to all who wish to form some general idea of the development of Russian literature, and will serve as an introduction to Professor Wiener's more elaborate 'Anthology,' of which the second volume, just published, now demands attention.

Mr. E. T. Cook's 'A Popular Handbook to the Greek and Roman Antiquities in the British Museum' (Macmillan) is, thanks to India paper, of a size for the pocket, and, with a flexible leather cover, friendly to the hand. The author finds space for extracts from what critics have said about the more famous pieces, and in the articles on vases, engraved gems, and figurines, for example, gives sufficient information as to technical processes—an important matter usually slurred by ciceroni. The compilation gives an impression of thoroughness, and we believe the book can confidently be commended to visitors of the foremost museum of classical antiquities.

M. Bolot spent his whole life in the French army, in the commissary department. He saw many things which he thought to be wrong, and about which he could say nothing because he belonged to "La Grande Muette." Now he is retired, and he unbosoms himself in a work full of bitterness and rancor, 'La Grande Muette' (Paris: Ernest Flammarion). He explains how the war of 1870 could have been won if he had managed things; he expatiates on the many blunders of the General Staff, on the lavish expenditures for useless fortifications, on the vices of mobilization, the waste of money in the commissary department, etc., etc. The book, written in a loose and rather common style, contains, no doubt, some useful criticisms, but they are expressed in such a spirit as to lose much of their force in the mind of the impartial reader.

Victor Bérard, whose work on 'England and Imperialism' was so successful, has republished, under the title 'Questions Extérieures (1901-1902)', his papers contributed to the *Revue de Paris* from month to month (Paris: Armand Colin). The main difficulty with the book is, that the rush of events has already in a few months deprived most of the subjects of their immediate interest. But, for foreign readers, there are other difficulties. Frenchmen seldom know much of what is going on in other countries, and to this rule even the majority of those who write about foreign affairs for the press are no exception. We should put M. Bérard down as one of the exceptions, but one of the exceptions who have gone to the opposite extreme: he knows too much. This is almost as great a fault as knowing too little, and leads M. Bérard to conclusions and generalizations that are often startling, *e. g.*, that Australia is a community "de mains blanches, de spéculateurs, et de nobles fainéants." And is it true that the English radicals, or any one else, have taught us that the world "belongs only" to the "mains noires"? A curious instance of excessive intelligence is when M. Bérard reaches the conclusion, from the *silence* on the subject of the terms of the Anglo-Boer peace, that there exists a secret article making England proprietor or "surintendant" of the Rand mines. The author's speculations about foreign affairs are always readable, but the field in which he works is full of pitfalls.

German-American Annals, the successor of *Americana Germanica*, offers in the March number an interesting article which is to form part of the proposed Ethnographical Survey of America. Prof. G. D. Leutscher tabulates very minutely the industries of York and Lancaster Counties, Pennsylvania, immediately after the formation of the United States. The most important general result of this investigation is the proof that the census of 1810, which has usually been the basis of economic statistics for this period, is hopelessly inaccurate. A comparison of its figures with those drawn from the assessors' books of these two counties brings out startling discrepancies, and shows the need of consulting the county and city records. This investigation is a promising earnest for the ethnographical survey of the State of Pennsylvania for which the German-American Historical Society properly hopes to enlist legislative aid. An old German midwife's record is of some genealogical importance for those who can read its orthography aright. It is summarized with business-like succinctness in a yearly tally, thus:

1801—23 buben, 23 med. [mädchen] } 46

"Why Museum of *Comparative* Zoölogy?" the late Asa Gray used to ask; "why not simply Zoölogy?" In this sense, Benedetto Croce discusses the title of Messrs. Woodberry, Fletcher and Spingarn's new *Journal of Comparative Literature* in the first number of his *La Critica* (Naples; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). The article is but one example of many in this number from the same hand, which combine clear thinking with the most agreeable reading, conspicuously the opening paper of a series of "Notes on Italian Literature in the Second Half of the Nineteenth Century," with Carducci for its theme, which we have already signalized. We remark in a footnote to Giovanni Gentile's elaborate review of Varisco's 'Scienza e Opinioni' that warning is given of this journal's intention to make a definitive choice between the two allowable spellings, Aristotile and Aristotele, in favor of the former as representing the elder and secular Italian usage.

In the *Theologische Literaturzeitung*, No. 2, Professor Harnack, of Berlin, publishes some new data on an old vexed question which go to prove that Peter was actually in Rome at one time. It is a quotation from the writings of Macarius Magnes, in which this writer defends Christianity against gentile critics, especially the philosopher Porphyry, the passage reading ('Apocritica,' III. 22), "It is really surprising that Jesus entrusted the keys of the kingdom of heaven to such a man as Peter, and that he could say to him, 'Feed my lambs!' And yet it is reported that Peter, after he had fed the lambs for only a few months (in Rome), was crucified." Harnack declares that this passage agrees with the conclusions of fair historical research, which admits that Peter did live in Rome, but that the story of a stay of twenty-five years is legendary.

The political degeneracy of Austria is accompanied by a retrogression of its universities that has reached the acute stage. Only recently the Academic Senate of the time-honored University of Vienna addressed an official appeal to the Government and to the two houses of Parliament, asking for assistance to avert the threatened decay of the higher institutions of learning in the empire. This singular document says: "Austria is losing its importance in the world of scholarship, and, as a consequence, the glory and the influence of the Austrian universities are threatened." The *Neue Freie Presse*, the most influential paper in Vienna, echoes this complaint, and declares that "the condition of affairs cannot be painted in too sombre colors." The trouble seems largely to be a matter of money, funds being lacking to keep the universities up to the demands of the time, especially in the case of laboratories, clinics, etc. Again, it seems impossible, on account of the small salaries paid, to keep a good man in an Austrian

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

university; as a rule he is promptly called to some German university, and just as promptly accepts. The memorial to the Vienna Senate emphasizes the fact that things have gone from bad to worse since, by the law of 1898, the professors were deprived of lecture fees.

Dr. Sven Hedin's account of his three years' explorations in Central Asia occupies the principal place in the *Geographical Journal* for March. He tells in a frank and entertaining way of his experiences in his boat-ride of 1,300 miles down the Tarim, in his journey across the desert in the dead of winter, and in his unsuccessful attempt to reach Lhasa. Notwithstanding he sought to disguise himself as a genuine Mongol by shaving his head and smearing his face with grease, he was discovered and turned back by an armed force when within about 150 miles of the sacred city. His principal geographical achievement has been, by his careful levelling in the Lob-nor desert, to throw new light on the changes which have been going on in the basin of this great Central Asian lake. His discovery of Chinese manuscripts of the second and third centuries A. D., many of them apparently receipts for corn, in a buried town on its border, opens a new chapter in Chinese history. The geographical effects of the recent volcanic eruptions in St. Vincent and Martinique are described by Dr. T. Anderson, whose work is mentioned above.

In Mr. Cutter's latest Librarian's report to the trustees of the Forbes Library, Northampton, Mass., along with other statistics showing the remarkable circulation of books in that college town, he notes that "over 2 per cent. of the inhabitants take out music scores." Smith College, for the first time, we believe, appears as a donor of money to the Forbes Library in acknowledgment of its indispensable serviceableness to the students. Yet, curiously enough, in one direction, "though the college has special art and music departments," corresponding sections of the Forbes Library "are little used by the students; their large circulation is almost entirely among the citizens."

The Justin Winsor prize of $100 offered by the American Historical Association for the encouragement of historical research will be awarded for the current year to the best unpublished monograph in the field of American history. It must be in the hands of the Committee of Award on or before October 1. Conditions may be learned by addressing the acting chairman of the committee, Prof. Charles H. Hull, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y. No woman has yet obtained this prize, though two have received honorable mention.

—The article of commanding interest in the April *Scribner's* is the description of the working of the Treasury Department, written by Frank A. Vanderlip, formerly Assistant Secretary of the Treasury. It was hardly necessary, however, that Mr. Vanderlip should mar a valuable paper with a flimsy attack upon the merit system for alleged failure to secure a highly competent working staff. He really answers his own assault by his almost unbounded eulogy of the Treasury Department as a working financial and commercial institution. It is too late in the day of civil-service reform to allege that the applicants for examination are largely incompetents, unable to make a place for themselves in the ordinary world of business. The point of absurdity is wellnigh reached when we are gravely told it is not politics, but sympathy and charity, that moves the average Congressman to visit the departments and plead for places. "In nine cases out of ten their requests may be debited to pure kindheartedness rather than to political machinations." When further told that the best-known political leaders are not likely to make requests that ought not to be granted, and are quick to appreciate good reasons why they may not have what they want, we instinctively think of the Platts and Quays and Gormans of the past twenty-five years, and wonder if Mr. Vanderlip has ever heard of them. But then Mr. Vanderlip himself, in another paragraph, informs us that, notwithstanding the recommendations of various Secretaries of the Treasury, Congress has persistently refused to abolish useless customs districts, twelve of them yielding only $275.26 in a single year, and one yielding but 20 cents and costing $1,800, merely "to give the Senator or Congressman most concerned an opportunity to recommend a Presidential appointment." Clarence Cary describes, with illustrations from photographs, the city of Dalny, which has so rapidly sprung into existence at the fiat of the Emperor of Russia, to provide terminal facilities for the great Trans-Siberian Railway system.

—The April *Century* opens with a detailed exposition of the restoration of the White House, at Washington, by the Clerk of the Senate Committee on the District of Columbia, Charles Moore. It is a rare piece of national good fortune that, thanks to Mr. McKim's reverence, the structure escaped the peril of losing its architectural identity under the plans for "improvement" proposed during the Harrison Administration. Ray Stannard Baker focalizes his study of the Great Northwest upon Butte City, a frontier mining camp of fifty thousand inhabitants, which produces each year more than a million dollars' worth of mineral wealth for each thousand of its population, and is too busy mining and smelting even to print illustrated circulars. The late Director of the Census contributes an interesting study of the methods of census-taking, as they have developed in our own practice. He is not happy, however, in referring to our census as "a decennial snapshot of the nation." The German census might fairly be so described, but our own authorities have gone rather to the extreme in their preference for the time exposure. Commander J. D. J. Kelley of the navy writes of the great Steamship Combine. His attitude is distinctly favorable, on the ground of the various economies which combination makes possible, more rational dates and intervals of sailing, etc. His arguments as to the impossibility of monopoly in the ocean trade lead one to wish for a good working definition of monopoly for use in such discussions. As the "monopoly" known to the strait-laced etymologist is always proved to be an impossibility, and as something really exists which the masses persist in calling monopoly, some practical understanding seems necessary to rational progress in debate.

—Mr. Thomas Willing Balch, whose contributions to the literature of the Alaskan boundary question our readers will remember, has published, through Allan, Lane & Scott, Philadelphia, a thin but handsome volume entitled 'The Alaska Frontier.' The object of this monograph is to state clearly and briefly the facts which entitle the United States to their unbroken strip of coast line between Mt. St. Elias and Portland Canal in southeastern Alaska. The fluctuating and nebulous claims which Canada has made from time to time have never been supported by any serious or tangible proof, and, perhaps for this very reason, have cultivated a Canadian public opinion which is not the less to be reckoned with because it has no sound foundation. It is on all accounts most desirable that a clear statement, divested of technicality, should be available for those interested in the controversy and who have been led into a state of uncertainty by Canadian quibblers. Except for her desire to reach tidewater on her own territory, it is doubtful whether Canada would ever have taken up the speculative theories raised by private essayists. It should be understood that there are two questions involved in the dispute. The first is, whether the *lisière* to which the United States is entitled by the treaty of 1825 is an unbroken strip, including all the marine coast line, or not. The second is as to the manner in which the boundary shall run if our rights to an unbroken *lisière* are acknowledged. The first is the essential point; the second, relatively unimportant. It is important that the agents of the United States, in representing our case before the Commission, should avoid confusing them. The obvious Canadian policy is to mix them together, and to reckon on the main point being lost sight of in the mass of verbiage which may be brought to bear on the secondary question.

—Mr. Balch gives a clear and sufficient account of the negotiations leading to the treaty, an official copy in French and English of the instrument itself, and a convincing argument from its provisions as to the continuity of the *lisière*. To this is added a wealth of illustration by photographic reproduction of twenty-eight important maps, from the earliest times to 1900, showing the uniform view taken on this point by officials and geographers of Russia, Great Britain, and Canada; thus establishing by prescription the rights near the southern boundary which have been called in question by critics, through some vagueness in the definition by the treaty of the line near Dixon Entrance. It is understood that an enormous mass of testimony has been gathered by the State Department bearing on the questions of occupation and jurisdiction. This is precisely the sort of thing which leads to unending and inconclusive argument. If the main question is correctly decided, the rest follows in its train, for the most part without argument. In Mr. Balch's book, the main threads of evidence are woven into a conclusive whole, which should be in the hands of all interested, and the publication of which is of general importance at the present time.

—"Certain Aboriginal Remains of the Northwest Florida Coast," Part II., by Clarence B. Moore, forms the latest number of the Journal of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia. It describes the results of the exploration of nearly sev-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

enty mounds along the shores of St. Andrew's, St. Joseph's, Apalachicola, Ocklockonee, Apalachee, and Deadman's Bays, St. Andrew's, St. Vincent's, and St. George's Sounds, Alligator Harbor, and the rivers and Gulf Coast to Cedar Keys. As during the previous investigation, the work resolved itself into a study of the aboriginal earthenware of the district visited. It was noted during progress eastward that the influence of Alabama and the middle Mississippi district as to the composition of ware gradually disappeared, no admixture of shell having been found east of Choctawhatchee Bay, the limit of the polished, black ware of Mississippi. On the other hand, the influence of Georgia, as shown in the complicated stamp decoration, became noticeable. In material and decoration the ware is superior, as a rule, to that of such mounds of peninsular Florida as contain earthenware, although it does not excel a few of the best specimens found in the mounds of the St. John's River. A dark vessel from near the mouth of that stream, sherds of excellent paste and superior decoration from near Dunn's Creek, and part of a vessel beautifully incised and showing the yellow of the paste alternating with the crimson pigment, from a mound near Lake Monroe, are described as fully equal to the finest earthenware of the northwest coast of Florida. It is surmised that the aborigines of the peninsula possessed fine ware, but did not, as a rule, inter it with their dead, and that their best vessels were importations, probably got through barter. Specimens of mortuary vessels, of flimsy material and fantastic form, the bases of which had been perforated previous to the baking of the clay, were found in increasing numbers. Individual vessels were often much larger than any met with on the coast to the westward or in peninsular Florida. Vessels of a new type were discovered in the neighborhood of St. Andrew's Bay. They were life-forms, but were inferior to others of the kind as to material and workmanship, and had various perforations made before baking in the body of the vessel, as well as the customary one at the base. It is interesting to note that the general deposits of earthenware were nearly always in the eastern part of the mound. Cremation appears to have been practised only occasionally in northwestern Florida. This memoir is copiously illustrated.

—'The Red Miriok,' by Anna M. Barnes (Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society), is a story of the life of an American missionary family in Korea, the basis of which is the account of a boating trip up the River Han, with interesting glimpses into the minds of the people of white robes and big hats. The author may have lived in Korea and probably did, though, in a story picturing so strange a land and people, one would gladly have less American and more native local color. The title word "Miriok" has reference not to the colossal stone structures known to travellers, but to a little image of Buddha stolen from a monastery, which the boatman Kitze kept on his person as an amulet, the adventures of which form the chief subject of the story. The illustrator has certainly not been in the peninsula, for his Koreans are all Chinamen, in dress, even to the pigtail, in pose and in manner. Nevertheless, this story for young people is a good one, wholesome in tone and full of movement. Bound with the volume, making nearly equal bulk, is a collection of "Shan Folk-lore Stories," from the hill and water countries, by William C. Griggs, M.D. The nine illustrations are by native artists in true Burmese style. In Shan land the hare is the same brainy and nimble creature as his brother in Korea and Japan and among the negroes of the South; only, the Shan "Brer Rabbit" deceives not the monkey, or the badger, or the fox, but the noble tiger. The Shan tortoise also has wonderful powers of transformation, and the sparrow is as remarkable for his accomplishments as in Japan. The Shan world was created because "the Great Spirit Spider felt weary with carrying round her heavy burden of eggs." Weaving her web upon the waters, the winds blew, and the solid matter, caught in the meshes of the web, became earth, which kept the spider-eggs warm, and in due time the first man and woman were hatched out. Instead of the Japanese *oni* or the Burman *nat*, the semi-celestial busy-body and wonder-worker is the *hpca*, who is universally feared and propitiated. He lives in the forest, watches over wells, tanks, and lakes, and often neither honey nor firewood can be got out of the tree in which he lives, even though men starve or shiver. In this folk-lore, the hero does not marry and live happy ever after, but becomes the king of the country, not "governing," but "eating" it—a suggestive expression, reminding us of the "bosses" in New York and Pennsylvania.

THE "UNKNOWN" AND THE KNOWABLE.—I.

Unknown Mexico: A Record of Five Years' Exploration among the Tribes of the Western Sierra Madre; . . . Tepic and Jalisco; and among the Tarascos, etc. By Carl Lumholtz, M.A. 2 vols., illustrations and maps. 8vo, pp. xxxii, 530, 496. Scribners.

So long ago as 1887, Mr. Carl Lumholtz (who had already with some seriousness explored "Among the Cannibals" of Australia) came to harbor a hopeful dubiety whether the dead but still alluring "Cliff-Dwellers" of our Southwest might not have their fellows still quick amid the abutting wilds of northwestern Mexico. In that "little-explored" desolation there could be almost anything—and surely nothing better worth discovery by the new school of discoverers. Coming to the United States in 1890, he found sundry and illustrious patrons to share the like pious suspicion of buried treasures next door; and very presently he was duly sinewed to go forth and see. The outcome, thus far, of this worthy if inexpert wonderment has been four several invasions of Mexico, interrupted by some fallings back upon the financial base of supplies, but in fact fulfilling five round years of patient burrowing in regions it already pleases us (who are so soon willing to let bygones be bygones, as to history) to reckon "unknown"; a number of magazine articles; a large monograph on the Huicholes; and now two big, handsome, and truly respectable "popular" volumes on 'Unknown Mexico.'

There will be—there can be—no fuller and no more ready appreciation of Mr. Lumholtz's growth in grace of science and the expeditionary art than from precisely such as with most misgiving beheld his maiden descent upon Mexico, unhampered by a single preparation, linguistic, geographical, or documentary. He had not a word of the language which is the universal *picaporte* from Arizona to Patagonia; nor of any other tongue maternal to any person within the area to be studied; nor a shred of those documentary alleviations of the beginner which have been compiling for much better than three centuries. All unconsciously, this work is a record of growth. Even from the frontier side, the expedition began "Tenderfoot"—with thirty men, counting cooks, scientists, and mule-drivers, and "nearly 100 animals." But Mr. Lumholtz learned—if at first, perhaps, by constriction of resources, later by native wit. Approximately four-fifths of his exploration was by himself, sole—save only for the few Indian or Mexican packers and guides, and the small "train" needful to transport his outfit and collections.

Neither prepared nor inspired, he has, nevertheless, and by sheer dint of pains-taking, made a worthy contribution to the literature of popular-scientific travel. Earnest but sane, eager but patient; of a certain homely good nature and cheerfulness which is the first qualification for any travel; handsomely endowed in the tolerance without which whatsoever ethnologist were better cast into the sea, he has so admirable individual equipment that one is the more regretful for his almost utter lack of the sharp tools whetted by the pioneers.

"It seems to me," he writes, "after my long experience with the Mexican Indians, that in their natural state they are in certain points superior . . . to the common run of whites. . . . We are brought up to look upon primitive people as synonyms of all that is crude, evil and vicious. Nothing could be more erroneous. . . . People who live in close touch with nature are in fact not capable of being as perverted as civilized criminals are in mind and body. . . . It is a very common mistake to look upon a barbarian as a third-rate white man. The Indian's physique is better developed, and his senses are better trained, than the white man's; his intellect and clearness of thought average higher than the common people's of Europe and America. . . . Beyond comparison, both men and women know the flora of their country better than even the cultivated classes among ourselves. . . . Monogamy is the recognized foundation of the family, and the social standing of the woman is that of a junior partner. In their behavior toward one another, these Indians never become beastly, as low-class whites will. . . . Personal modesty is innate in the race. . . . Justice with them is inexorable. . . . In his behavior toward his tribesmen as well as toward strangers, . . . though dressed in rags he is a born gentleman, and as polite and considerate of other persons' feelings as any one adorned in purple and fine linen. . . . In their religious fervor the aborigines of Mexico have no equals, certainly not among Christians. . . . I cannot help thinking that, as long as Mexico was to be made subject to European powers, it was well for her to fall among members of a Latin race rather than those of Germanic or Teutonic descent. For the Spanish character and temperament resemble in a degree those of the Indians. . . . Modern civilization is even more intolerant in contact with people of lower culture than were the Spanish conquerors of Mexico and Peru. . . . The Spanish, after subduing a people, did not crush out their virility."

And so on, in many refreshing touches. To this tolerant spirit, add a style unaffected, ordinarily agreeable, generally

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

lucid, and frank to the verge of naïveté. The upwards of 1,000 pages of the book furnish much more than the "good reading" they certainly are. Judged as "travel," here is far better than the wonted share of information, digestible to the layman, but perhaps worth most to the student who can supply the historical context the author lacks. No one else of modern times has besieged the tribes of the Sierra Madre with so dogged particularity, nor any one of any time for so long a term in the general light of to-day. Here we have corroboration and detail of facts recorded centuries ago, indeed, but in no danger of being too often or too deeply studied.

The half-decade of this honest, earnest, and important field-work was unequally but impartially (and somewhat fortuitously) divided between the Tarahumares, the northern and southern Tepehuanes, the Huicholes, the Tepecanos, the "Tubars," certain centrifugal Nahuatl, and the tribe celebrate in a cherished *dicho* (of more than trivial worth to the folklorist) by that erudite Mexicanist, Father Fischer:

> "India que nacistes en Tasco,
> Sin tenedor ni partera—
> Tu madre una tamalera,
> Tu padre un indio Tarasco."

The longest sojourn was the year and a half with the Tarahumares; next in importance, ten months among the Coras and Huicholes; the rest of the term, "scattering." "Of most of these tribes," says Mr. Lumholtz (xiv.), "little more than their names were [*sic*] known, and I brought back large collections illustrating their ethnical status, besides extensive information in regard to their customs, religion, traditions, and myths."

The latter member of this statement is true. If it had had no other fruits—and, besides his collections, his sixty graphophone records, his twenty-seven new plants, and one new mammal, there is much other and admirable harvest—Mr. Lumholtz's exploration would be justified of all its cost by its contribution to our knowledge of the remarkable cult of the Peyote. Significantly kin to other vegetal fetishisms familiar in anthropology—and notably to that of the Cuca in Peru and Bolivia, of which, however, we have as yet no equal modern synthesis—the complex esoterism that has grown up around this echinocactus of ecstatic properties has been historic for above 300 years, and among far more tribes than the author seems to dream. But, in the elder days, these superstitions, so palpably of the devil, were apt to be set down in the record without indecent lingering. Mr. Lumholtz has secured, and presents, a large and valuable mass of detail as to this curious devotional drunkenness—for we cannot too sharply remember that the intoxications which so ubiquitously and so bitterly grieved the apostolic pioneers of Mexico were almost exclusively of ceremonial character.

For reasons doubtless known to himself, Mr. Lumholtz prefers to call the Peyote by a name which is not historic, if, indeed, it has before been printed—"Hikuli." Whatever sound is intended to be conveyed, it is rather safe to say that this does not spell it. In all human probability what he means would be, in this region, written Jiculi. As to this, by odds the most important theme between the covers of these sumptuous volumes, there is neither comparison nor etymology vouchsafed. For the latter, a glance at the pictured plant is enough to show its strong resemblance to a navel; and the guess is neither far nor hazardous from the nondescript new word to an Aztec *Xiquilitl*, compound of *Xictli* (umbilicus) and *Quilitl* (vegetable; source of the now familiar Southwestern provincialism *quelites*, for "greens" and garden-stuff). The conjecture is sound etymologically, while from the point of aptness and "Indianness" it leaves nothing to desire.

We have here, also, our fullest up-to-date detail of the deer-cult, the ceremonial races, the esoteric etiquette of birth, marriage, death and the sequent ghost-scaring, and many other ethnologic data as to the tribes in question. All these contributions are interesting; practically all of them seem sound—and we have a long array of record by which to check them. The tribes of the Sierra Madre were well described before 1550. It is, perhaps, surprising that almost every author who between 1550 and 1800 wrote of these Indians, mentions in at least generic terms the very facts of ethnologic importance with which these new-century volumes chiefly deal. Perhaps it is no less surprising that the modern author seems hardly to have heard of any of these predecessors, and in no wise to have benefited by them—if we except trivial allusion (without date) to Father Fonte, who described the Tarahumares almost three centuries ago, and a few other as loose and unscientific references.

Two cardinal defects seriously afflict a work of whose many admirable qualities a hint has been given. It is not unreasonable to hold a twelve-dollar book—widely heralded as relating "remarkable discoveries," and as "one of the most important records of successful scientific explorations in recent years"—to rather stricter accountability than we need demand of the cheap and confessed mere beguiler of an hour. "Popular" in a proper sense such a work fitly may be; but there is an implied contract that it shall be also "prepared" and ripe. Interesting it must be; but it is not destined to be read exclusively for amusement. Aside from entertaining details, it is expected to give the lay reader some fair general concept of the themes it deals in. Certainly, in the scientific aspect, it is now late for too much and too Columbian "discovery." The New Worlds are mostly found, though our monthlies still do seriously incline in their quest. On the first page of his preface, Mr. Lumholtz avows that his first attraction to Mexico was hope of finding there still-extant "Cliff-Dwellers." This has rather persisted as a keynote, in so far as the hum of his remote activities has reached the popular ear. In this deliberate work, printed thirteen years after his actual launching upon the quest, there appears a certain disingenuousness as to this rather important head. No blazed tree at its side, nor sensible jog in its continuity, warns us when we are wiled off the trail to a new path. "What went ye out for to see?" Why, Cliff-dwellings—something comparable to the astounding, enormous, and architecturally triumphant monuments of the prehistoric Pueblos, whose castled communal towns still beetle upon and in the cliffs of New Mexico, Arizona, and their northern adjacencies. And what do we emerge with seeing—and even that as through a glass, darkly? Why, a second-hand sort of cave-dwellings. When or how we left the right-hand path, and why we fetch up as we do, we are left to guess. For there is neither premonishment nor explication. How came we here? *Quien sabe?* Here we are.

"Although it may be said that houses are their main habitations, still the Tarahumares live in caves to such an extent that they may be fitly called the American cave-dwellers of the present age" (I., 160). "Although thus far [up to April, 1891, a few months in the field] the question regarding surviving cliff-dwellers was answered negatively, the field southward in the Sierra was so promising that I felt eager to extend my explorations" (xi.). "Still, the fact of there being cave-dwellers to-day in Mexico was until recently known only to the Mexicans living in their neighborhood" (I., 161). "The largest inhabited cave I have seen was nearly 100 feet in width. . . . I heard of one arroyo where six inhabited caves . . . can be seen at one time; but this is a rare case. In one place I saw a cave, or rather a shelter under a big boulder, utilized as a dwelling" (I., 167).

And so on, in several variants of the off-hand, too-familiar-to-mention style. It requires tedious back-searching through the 1,000-page record—for the alleged index is *"mocks" et præterea nihil*—to count up that Mr. Lumholtz says he has really seen, in his five years of pursuit, certainly two (and it may be four, for the case is not clear) inhabited caves. He pictures apparently four, but without hint if these be identical with the Terrible Examples of the text. There is one Sierra Madre (in northern Mexico, that is; there are many otherwhere), and Æsop was its prophet. No reminder here of a tolerable difference between even such "cave-dwellers" as habitually live in houses part of the time, but semi-occasionally shelter under the natural concavities with which the ravines of their land innumerably abound, and "cave-dwellers" of the variety of the New Mexican Shu-finné, the Pu-yé, and the incomparable Rito de los Frijoles, who made caves to dwell in, and in them sempiternally and uninterruptedly dwelt. If all that incidentally and occasionally linger under protective rocks, or even build partitions where nature furnishes ready-made three of the six sides of a room, are to be included, then Mr. Lumholtz can find still in New Mexico, Arizona, Colorado, Utah, and California some few English-speaking persons as "fitly to be called American cave-dwellers of the present age"—and more of them than he specifies having discovered in the Sierra Madre of Mexico. It is not too much to say that this general indirectness is at least unscientific. Let us hope that it is not even up to the magazine traditions.

There is some prognosis of a like inflammation of the popular chords in the unretracted statement (ix., x.): "The northernmost portion of the Sierra Madre del Norte has from time immemorial [which is not exactly true] been under the dominion of the wild Apache tribes. . . . Not until Gen. Crook, in 1883, reduced these dangerous nomads to submission [to the which they were not even approximately reduced, save by gasps, until some four years later] did it become possible to make scientific investigations there; indeed, small bands of the 'Men of the Woods' were still left, and my party had to be strong enough to cope with any difficulty from them. Inasmuch as my expedition was the first to take advantage of the comparative security prevailing in that district"—and so on for quantity.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The pinch of the humor of this is that precisely in the last of 1883, and through most of 1884 (six years before "the first to take advantage"), Bandelier trudged, on foot, unarmed and solitary, over this same territory. It *was* dangerous. It was a higher rate of hazard than San Juan Hill. But perhaps only the grave Crook, or Bourke, or Crawford, could have done justice in a single smile to the party Mr. Lumholtz elected as "strong enough to cope" with the Chihuicahui tigers. In justice it must be added that this is far outside the average tone of the book. Its normal air is unbraggart and uncomplaining—even unmagnifying and cheerful under deprivations very real and deplorable to almost any person habituated to the inconveniences of civilization.

ASSOS.

Investigations at Assos: Expedition of the Archæological Institute of America. Drawings and photographs of the buildings and objects discovered during the excavations of 1881, 1882, 1883, by Joseph T. Clarke, Francis H. Bacon, and Robert Koldewey. Edited with explanatory notes by Francis H. Bacon. Part I., 74 pp. Folio. Cambridge, Mass.: The Archæological Institute of America. 1902.

The site of Assos is an isolated volcanic hill more than 750 feet in height, lying on a narrow strip of land only about a mile wide, between the river Satnioïs and the Gulf of Adramyttium, opposite Lesbos, on the southern shore of the Troad, about thirty miles from Troy. The small summit of the hill, on which are seen no indications of any ancient building except a temple, was the crater of the volcano, choked by a second flow of andesite which has well covered the limestone at the foot of the hill. The temple was as conspicuous as that of Sunium—"Colonna's marbled steep"—rising as it did far above the city, and the position of the city was marked and commanding. Before the foundation of Alexandria Troas, about twenty miles distant, near the close of the fourth century B. C., Assos seems to have been the chief city of the Troad after the fall of Ilium. Its harbor was artificial, being formed only by a mole, of which a large part has now nearly or entirely disappeared; but for a thousand years the place has had no importance except for this slight shelter of ships. The Apostle Paul went on foot from Troas to Assos, and there joined his companions, who had journeyed by sea. At present the Turkish village of Behram on the slope of the hill is made up of a hundred miserable huts; but fifteen or twenty boats are generally at the mole receiving their lading, which consists chiefly of the husks of the acorns of the valonia oak, which are brought to the port on the backs of camels and are exported for use in tanning. The wheat for which the region was so famous that it was used for the bread of the Persian king's table, two thousand miles away, is not now raised in sufficient quantity to supply local needs; the Turkish inhabitants are not fond of tilling the soil.

Assos was noted for its "flesh-eating" *(sarcophagus)* stone, which gave its name to the whole class of stone coffins found here more abundantly than anywhere else. Many of these great monolithic sarcophagi, eight feet in height and large in proportion, are described as still standing in the cemetery. All which were exposed to view were broken open long ago for the sake of the ornaments and other treasures buried with the dead. Early travellers write of seeing kids and lambs take shelter in them, and many others are used as water troughs in the neighboring villages. One hundred and twenty-four of these, however, were found unopened by the American expedition. This "flesh-eating" stone is the ordinary andesite of the hill. Of it the walls and other structures of the city were built, except that volcanic tufa was chosen for certain ornaments, gargoyles and acroteria, of the temple. The stone, being quarried in blocks by the simple process of wedging—with planes of cleavage approximately horizontal and vertical—afforded excellent material for city walls and buildings, but was too coarse-grained and intractable for use in ornamentation, and certain usual decorative features of the temple were omitted. In an early report Mr. Clarke promised to speak of the chemical properties of this stone, but he has not done so.

A good argument is made to prove that Assos stood on the site of the Homeric Pedasus, which was the early home of one of Priam's wives (Iliad, xxi. 87). Pedasus was a "lofty town on the banks of the Satnioïs," and no other lofty site is found on the banks of that river, which, though it is within a mile of the sea at Assos, does not reach the Ægean until it has had a further course of about twenty miles. In the fourth century B. C., Assos was for three years the abode of the philosopher Aristotle, who there visited his friend and connection by marriage, the "tyrant" Hermeias; and a little later it was the birthplace of Cleanthes, who succeeded Zeno as the head of the Stoic School.

The site of Assos was deserted early enough to leave the buildings and walls in fairly good condition, so that Colonel Leake, the admirable traveller and topographer, who visited it in 1800, wrote that the theatre was in very perfect preservation, that remains of several temples were lying on the ground, that on the western side of the city the walls and towers with a gate were "in complete preservation," and that "the whole gives perhaps the most perfect idea of a Greek city that anywhere exists." A year later, in 1801, Dr. Hunt, who accompanied the Earl of Elgin's embassy to the Ottoman Porte, wrote of the temple on the citadel that "parts of the shafts remain on their original site, so that a person conversant with ancient architecture might easily trace the plan and different details." Neither Leake nor Hunt, however, mentions marble remains, and the American explorations showed that no scrap of this stone was left above ground, and very little below. Clearly, limeburners pillaged the site with care some centuries ago. Since so much lime could not have been needed for such an insignificant settlement as seems to have existed there for a thousand years, the suggestion is not unreasonable that lime may have been exported thence as an article of commerce, although the unsubstantial modern huts, needing renewal every few years, and requiring much mortar because of the difficulty in reducing the hard stone to the exact shape desired, use a vast amount of lime.

The change in the condition of the ruins in the course of the nineteenth century was very great, and the observation of it emphasizes the truth that the archæological renaissance came in the very nick of time. Just as the irreparable loss of ancient manuscripts of the works of classical literature would have been vastly greater if the literary renaissance had been delayed for two centuries, so a like delay of archæological interest in ancient structures would have resulted in great damage. In each case the destruction seems to have become more rapid in the later centuries before the revival of interest.

After the visits of Leake and Hunt, the Turkish authorities in the first third of the nineteenth century built extensive fortifications on the citadel, probably under the influence of the Greek war for independence, in view of the proximity of the island of Lesbos and its large Greek population; and the American explorers found no stone of the temple upon another. In 1838, the reliefs of the epistyle and the metopes of the temple, so far as they lay above ground, were removed to Paris and placed in the Louvre. In 1864, the buildings and walls of the city, and particularly the theatre, served as a quarry for the Turkish Government, which had the largest and best blocks of stone removed to Constantinople for its public works there. The Turks even demolished the chief entrance gate of the city, an admirable monument of military architecture. The theatre, which had been more perfectly preserved than any other in Asia, was "transformed into an enormous quarry," and became "little more than a hollow in the deep hillside." With this procedure may be compared the action of another Turkish official, who, during the excavations on the site of ancient Troy, sent a squad of men to Dr. Dörpfeld with a requisition for the finest blocks of stone uncovered in the course of his work.

In June, 1879, the site of Assos was visited by J. Thacher Clarke and Francis H. Bacon, young architects of Boston, and chiefly on their recommendation it was selected as its first field of explorations in classical archæology by the recently established Archæological Institute of America. Although the sculptures which remained on the surface of the ground had been carried to Paris, the earth had not been overturned either by authorized excavators or by peasants in search of plunder. The work of surveying was begun in April, 1881, and that of excavation, after many delays in obtaining the promised necessary *irade* from the Turkish Government, in August of the same year. The number of laborers employed, some of whom had been trained by Humann in the excavations at Pergamon, was about thirty-five, and the work continued until the termination of the permit in May, 1883, interrupted not by the heat of summer, as in Olympia, but by the inclemency of the winters. The work was so completed as to win praise from those who have seen it. Of the portable objects uncovered, two-thirds were taken by the Turkish Government and the other third was given by the Institute to the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, the cost of the expedition having been borne chiefly by those who were interested in that museum. The explorers declared their satisfaction with the division, and when we remember that theirs was the last expedition to be allowed a share in such discoveries in Turkish lands,

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

we may be grateful that so valuable archæological monuments came to America.

The preliminary report of the American explorations at Assos was published promptly in 1882, as the first volume of Papers of the Archæological Institute, Classical Series. Brief summaries of the investigations in the second and third years were presented in the annual reports of the Institute, but the fuller account was delayed. Mr. Clarke became so engaged in other work that he was unable to prepare such a complete and scientific statement as he desired to make. A portion of his final report was published in 1898 as the second volume of the Papers of the Institute, Classical Series, devoted chiefly to the architecture and sculpture of the temple on the acropolis, giving much attention to the elucidation of the processes of construction, and considerable space to a discussion of the date of the erection of the temple. The completion of this final report is now not considered probable, and the Council of the Institute wisely determined to publish the plans, which had been made with great skill and care, with brief explanatory notes by Mr. Bacon, and an introduction made up from Mr. Clarke's reports. This publication is the more important, since that by Texier, in 1849, of the French explorations at Assos in 1835 has been shown to be extremely inaccurate, and covered only part of the ground.

The 'Investigations at Assos' is to be published in five parts, of which the first is before us, containing Kiepert's excellent map of northwestern Asia Minor, sixteen pages of text, including seven plates; seven pages of inscriptions, with their elucidations by Professor Sterrett of Cornell University; seven pages of photographs, and twenty-one plans—all relating to the Agora, the Stoa, and the Bouleuterion. Some of these plans, naturally, are of interest only to architects and archæologists, but not a few are of more general interest. For example, Mr. Bacon's plan of the Agora, showing the relative positions of the public buildings—the Bouleuterion or Hall of Deliberation, the Gymnasium, the baths, the Stoa, the theatre, and the like—and marking the paved streets, gives a more lively view than might have been anticipated of the public life of the city; and his restoration of the Agora is full of spirit. The Stoa, where the men gathered in a social way, protected from rain or from sun, stood on the slope of the hill, and had two stories, which made it unusual if not unique. The illustration of the ancient processes of architectural construction is interesting, also. Most of the plans in this part of the publication were drawn by Mr. Robert Koldewey, a Prussian architect and archæologist, at present in charge of the Babylonian excavations of the German Oriental Society, and who was at first a volunteer and then a regular member of the exploring expedition, and to whom the Agora and the buildings about it were assigned in the division of the work. We regret that, from lack of the archæological discussions which Mr. Clarke was best qualified to give, the investigations at Assos will not throw so much light on ancient Greek public life as was at one time anticipated, but these photographs and plans do more than they could fairly be expected to do in presenting a view of the ancient city.

MORE NOVELS.

John Percyfield. By C. Hanford Henderson. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Blue Goose. By F. L. Nason. McClure. Phillips & Co.

Calvert of Strathore. By Carter Goodloe. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Deeps of Deliverance. By Frederik van Eeden. Translated from the Dutch by Margaret Robinson. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

A Daughter of the Pit. By Margaret Doyle Jackson. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Six Trees. By Mary E. Wilkins Freeman. Harper & Brothers.

From a Thatched Cottage. By Eleanor G. Hayden. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

From the Unvarying Star. By Elsworth Lawson. The Macmillan Co.

Lees and Leaven. By Edward W. Townsend. McClure, Phillips & Co.

The Pit. By Frank Norris. Doubleday, Page & Co.

Mr. Henderson calls his book an "Anatomy of Cheerfulness"; it is rather a study in self-complacency and egotism, in which the hero indulges in some four hundred pages of sentimental monologue with an average of a dozen I's to a page. "John Percyfield" belongs to one of the first families of Philadelphia, and the reader is not allowed to forget it. The punctiliousness of the Percyfields, their lineage "that has come down unspotted from that first Mr. Percyfield of whom we have any knowledge, the one who was esquire to William the Conqueror," their fastidiousness as expressed by the hero of the present work when travelling in the West, "I found a very shabby car, with cane seats and bare floor, and 'second-class' written very large all over it. It was not the sort of an affair that the Percyfields commonly travel in"—of all this one soon grows weary. But the book has its surprises: Percyfield is a seer of visions, and accepts his nocturnal visitations as the most natural thing in the world. It is here, if anywhere, that one is expected to detect the resemblance to 'John Inglesant' pointed out in the publishers' notice. But Mr. Shorthouse never ventured on such a flight as the following:

"Quite without warning or preface of any kind, I suddenly found myself, that is, my thinking self, entirely outside of my body and entirely detached from it save by a slender bond on the left side. I saw my body sitting there in the armchair, complete from head to foot, sharp and distinct. . . . And then I saw around the body, projecting from it six or eight inches, I should say, a slightly luminous gray cloud. It had the enlarged form of the body and enveloped it completely."

The precision of this reminds one of Professor Sidgwick's serious exhortation to his friends to lose no opportunity that might occur for photographing a ghost. Mr. Henderson, too, evidently intends us to believe in the objectivity of such appearances. "'Look,' she whispered, . . . and I saw a faint gray cloud detach itself from the quiet body, like a symbol of the spirit that was passing, and ascend into the void space above us. Had it not been for the Châtelaine, I should have counted it an illusion." The climax is reached when a whole family of ghosts call on the hero in a house in Broad Street, Philadelphia.

We do not dwell upon the plot of this romance, for there is none. The scene is laid chiefly in Switzerland, and in parts it reads like a guide-book. A fair specimen of the style, which is high-pitched, emotional, and intimate, is the following:

"I got up, and in the moonlight took my cold, refreshing bath. Everything was so white and unreal that I seemed to be bathing a marble statue, but I knew that under the white limbs the blood was running hot and red, and under the marble chest a heart was beating high with hope."

'The Blue Goose' is one of those tales of commercial enterprise in the West which threaten to rival the colonial romance. Given a precise and lavish use of the technical details of some business, a determined manager for hero, a gang of mutinous workmen with a socialistic agitator, and the rest is stereotyped. In the present instance, the scene is laid in a gold-mining settlement whose evil genius is the owner of "Blue Goose," a gambling and drinking-saloon, which, in the inevitable strike and wholesale destruction of property, is hoist with its own petard. The heroine, as usual, plays a slight but undaunted part in the business troubles of the hero, whom we leave triumphant, sitting like Marius amid the ruins of the company's machinery, after promiscuous shooting has relieved him of all the undesirable characters. This is not a type of fiction to which one looks for the effects of art. But the moral tone is high, the amount of technical information conveyed is really amazing, and the whole reminds us of certain serial tales in the 'Boy's Own Paper,' in which the youthful reader is encouraged to skate over a column of instructive facts by the certainty of finding his hero landed at the end of the chapter in some blood-curdling *impasse* from which he will not be extricated till the next number.

It does not appear in the Gouverneur Morris Journals and Correspondence that a young man named Edward Calvert was constantly at his side, dining, driving, plotting, rescuing, ear-witness of his bonmots, his society verse, his interviews with statesmen and royalties. But Calvert of Strathore was there, according to Mr. Goodloe's novel, Morris's trusted and beloved young friend, Jefferson's secretary and pet, Gilbert Stuart's admiration, Marie Antoinette's best-believed-in hope of rescue. Such is historical fiction. We thank Mr. Calvert for being in the third person; it softens his perfections; and when all is said, although the novel opens in a rather dull and stilted way, it proves extremely interesting as it proceeds. The story of the French Revolution from the American Legation's point of observation is none too hackneyed. It is well for novel readers to be reminded of the underlying influence of the American idea, to recall that the bloody culmination came from a slow-growing political root. The French Revolution of fiction and stage to-day is mere brutal situation. The more measured pace of this little book affords a useful complement to the usual story-teller's version. It is no dispraise, rather the contrary, to say that the Morris diary has furnished most of the facts, while the young hero's love story is quite pretty enough to justify itself for going hand in hand with the weightier matters of state and for occupying the attention of statesmen.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The publishers' word upon 'The Deeps of Deliverance' runs in part as follows:

"The most distinguished living Dutch writer, Frederik van Eeden, like Tolstoy and like Gorki, is an artist who concerns himself with the more intimate truths of life. The present work, which is inspired by a profound if unconventional feeling, tells the life-history of Hedwig Marga de Fontayne. It traces the evolution of the soul of a woman with a singularly daring realism, but a realism marked by a moral significance."

To this we will add that Hedwig's soul was developed exclusively through her body, and that a thorough review of the book would be a medical treatise, and as inappropriate general reading as is the book itself.

Mrs. Jackson's novel is about the coal-pits of Middleford, otherwise Manchester. The story itself is naïve, even amateurish, but it amply suffices as vehicle for impressions of life among English miners, conveyed with exceptional clearness and fidelity. We have the usual coal-mine tragic episodes—strikes and fires and treachery; but we have an added picture, not often exhibited, of the daily comings and goings in the underground city, where beside the horrors walk the figures of kindliness, daily loyalties, and amazing sense of duty—grim and gaunt, it is true, but with hope and home at the end of the day's work. Mrs. Jackson's description is the more impressive in that she herself lived in the suburbs of Manchester in her girlhood. The simple force of her story comes directly from her having seen what she writes about.

Mrs. Freeman's old men and old women of all ages maintain their peculiar charm; her incidents in most cases their agreeable prick. The trees, all things considered, bear less mark of having been lugged in by the roots than one would have expected on finding the accomplished author converting her New England figures into an arboretum where one might dread to see men as trees walking. In fact, it is interesting to find that, except for the titles and a trifle more of description, there is little more about trees than heretofore in her stories—for the seasons and the living, growing green things make life for such farm and village folk as Mrs. Freeman has immortalized; and, behold! she has always made it so without weaving the fact into her title. If the snowball bush and the syringa tell her world that spring has come, no less do the trees mark for them the longer periods, and set them to dreaming of the lives that have risen and set while yet the tree has been completing its protracted childhood and faithfully blooming on in green longevity. When her subject draws the writer into description more elaborate than her wont, it is of a fine and feeling sort. There is a poem in the page that tells of the dreamer to whom the great pine spoke in summer of winter and in winter of summer.

'From a Thatched Cottage' is worth reading if only for the delicious dialect, the dialect of English downs, of shepherds and poachers, of village housewives and village "layers-out." "Ter'ble middlin'" is, in the language of Selwood, "powerful soothin'"; "illcomevanient" shows what improvement common sense can make upon mere philology; "innerism" for "incendiarism" ought to be equipment for a detective; "a bit yea-nay" of a hesitating wooed one breathes of yielding and orange blossoms; "sponder" for "ponder" has a kindly air of throwing light on the difficulty. But there is more to recommend the book. First, some capital characterization. The old shepherd, queer and lovable; Keziah, "just a nice comfer'ble woman"; Patty Puddledock, a very uncomfortable woman, and her meek husband, are effective sidelights; while the principals, if drawn on more conventional lines, are satisfactory. Finally, there is a good story, somewhat repetitious, but nowhere dull, the groundwork, over which lesser interests throw their tracery, being a hot-headed murder, its effect for the rest of his life on the unconvicted murderer, and his final self-sacrifice, bringing peace to his half-mad brain. The workmanship is excellent throughout, and the air of the downs makes the book like one read at an open window.

'From the Unvarying Star' tells the story of a liberal preacher who came to a small Northumbrian parish, and met there his fates of various sorts. The book is really a sermon, broad and charitable, not on the hackneyed, loosely defined lines of breadth and charity, but fresh, sane, genuine. The vehicular fiction is somewhat crude and self-conscious. The Northumbrian landscape, as well as the religious utterance, is plainly, in the words of an old English author, "written out of experience."

There used to be in olden times a type of novel called the Industrious and Idle Apprentice story. It had a strong man and a weakling; a sweet, hard-working girl and a frivolous, pleasure-loving one; a railroad or stage-coach accident, a lost deed, and a wedding at the end. The type survives, *mutatis mutandis*—in book-binder's phrase, "old calf rebacked." Mr. Townsend's book is of this class, enlarged and modernized. It has several strong men and several weak ones, several sweet girls and weddings; many eccentric, even burlesque characters—all more or less original and bespeaking kindly attention. The author has made a good plot, and held up a vivid picture of a temptation to dishonesty arising from mere opportunity. The scene lies mainly in New York—that shady New York which Mr. Townsend depicts so well; its prominent revelations relating to the inner conduct of "live journalism." He contrives to keep his shady places as free as possible from mud, so that the book remains readable, unlike some cautionary literature.

If Mr. Wister is the Novelist Laureate of the Cowboy, the late Mr. Norris should have held the same title as to Wheat, whose epic he has sung with magnificent force and stir. 'The Pit' offers a wondrously vivid representation of the swirl and pull of the "undiked Ocean of the Wheat" as it surges round the Chicago Board of Trade. Reading, one seems to be at the mercy of an appalling whirlpool, and to see one's maddened fellow-beings wheeling, whirling, sinking, then hurled from the maelstrom to fall back and begin again the horrid circuit. Hideously real is the deal in the wheat pit, with all its side issues, its demoralizations and tragedies. The vociferous note of Chicago's works and ways is ever at the reader's ear. The rushing interest of the story holds his attention like a vise, while he seems to be fixed in the heart of a factory with all harsh sounds clanging and all machinery roaring, not only in respect of the pages given to the business life of the Great Gray City, but in the scenes of so-called domestic quiet. The portraits are good, in a style of ultra-detail. The development of the two-souled heroine makes a strong study and companion-piece to that of her husband, the great speculator. A Titan he, fighting Titans, beaten only, as his arch-enemy says, by Wheat itself. For the novel reader who looks for poetic justice, the sword of judgment falls too lightly on him, the "Great Unknown Bull," who wrecked so many lives in wantonness. One would like to see him at least repentant. For poetry, we must look farther—to the flow of the great stream of the wheat from the seed to the hungry markets of Europe—a sight made finely visible by the writer's imaginative yet direct way of seeing and saying. And there is a powerful moral in the spectacle of commercial gambling and its victims. But how unlovely a world is even the better part of a world where Bigness is the deity! In vain do music, art, books, nature, put in their pleas. The fingerprints of the great gods Size and Noise are on every page.

Chinese Porcelain. By W. G. Gulland. With notes by T. J. Larkin, and four hundred and eleven illustrations, arranged chronologically. Vol. II. Pp. xxxviii, 506. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

The book published in 1898 under this title and reviewed in these columns at considerable length has just been followed by a second volume, in which the subject is taken up where it was dropped; that is to say, the general account of porcelain in China is succeeded by an historical inquiry, and, after a brief introduction, we pass without break—without mark of chapter, book, or section—into the chronological treatment, beginning with the epoch from 1506 to 1522, and going regularly on to 1875, at which date the book closes. Each separate epoch is denoted by the emperor whose name represents it in common chronologies. Of the great times of the Ming dynasty little is said; largely, we may assume, from lack of material. There are but few pieces of porcelain within the reach of an Englishman living at home that can be accepted by him and criticised as "real Ming" vases or plates. It appears, however, that the author does not respect the porcelain of the Ming times as much as do most collectors and writers on the subject. The old theory, very commonly accepted, is that the Tartar conquest by which the Ming dynasty was brought to a close, brought with it decadence in the decorative arts of China, and that these were long in regaining their strength, and never regained quite their refinement and their significance. To the princes of this older dynasty but two pages apiece, or sometimes less than a page, is allowed.

With the reign of the conquering Emperor Kang-hi, or Kang-he, the subject assumes more interest for Mr. Gulland, and to this reign alone is given nearly ten times as much space as is allowed to all the preceding reigns together. It is at this point in the chronological sequence that the attempted analysis of the decorated porcelains is given. Here comes in the division between *famille verte*, blue and white, *aubergine*, and the rest; and here is the mention of "foreign influence" and of Kakiyemon, who is considered to have

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

been an early Japanese maker of porcelain, and to have given his name to a whole class of objects, many of which are now known to be Chinese. It is evident that with our author the historical examination of his subject begins with the Mongol dynasty, and that the present volume is an attempt at the history of Chinese porcelain from 1661, with a few unconnected remarks about the earlier times.

The book is not systematic. One piece after another is taken up and described with some reference to the photographic representation of it. It is like the talk of a collector showing his own treasures to a sympathetic listener. And this impression is made stronger by the absence of any clear statement as to the place of any piece. Are they all in the South Kensington Museum? Not so; for at least one is located for us, "Mr. G. R. Davies's celebrated black vase" (p. 370), which the owner himself has described for the author. Like the paging, the numbering of the illustrations is continued from the first volume. The first in the new book is No. 486, and the highest number reached is 896, so that the two volumes taken together give certainly an enormous number of examples. It cannot be said, however, that the half-tone process is well adapted to such illustration as this. Curvature of surface and delicacy of painted adornment are alike beyond the reach of the coarse gradation producible by the mesh. Nor are these the best half-tones conceivable, though they are of good average merit.

Trees and Shrubs for English Gardens. By E. T. Cook. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

"The word 'English,'" we are told in the preface, "of course stands for the British Isles." The range of climate in the British Isles is so much greater than that of England alone that a treatise covering the former must be more likely to contain matter of interest to horticulturists in Eastern North America than if it were restricted to England alone.

The book possesses, among other excellent qualities, an attractive typography, fine illustrations, and an earnest style. It is easy for a writer on amateur gardening to drawl along in an empty manner, uttering the most familiar things in an oracular way, much as suburbanites compare notes about their astonishing crops. There is nothing of this dry and vain pomposity in the work before us. The writer is a lover of plants and of groups of plants, and has a horror of the results which follow thoughtless planting.

Of course, all such books are likely to cross somebody's prejudices at some unexpected point. Few persons are so intolerant of the views of others as are the enthusiastic owners of small urban or suburban plots of ground devoted to decorative planting. In no occupation does a very little experience count for so much; a single success or a single failure controls the whole subsequent course. Now, as a matter of fact, in no vocation or avocation should a single unrepeated experiment count for so little. Soils, exposures, and the other factors of plant life are so diverse and so difficult to determine for a given case that the beginner is apt to overlook even the most important considerations. The average householder who essays to try his hand at planting around his dwelling, provides himself, first, with half a score of convenient horticultural books, and, finding these somewhat conflicting in their advice, he abandons them, and turns helplessly to the few lines of counsel furnished by the seedmen's catalogues. The brief directions in the latter have the encouraging optimism of patent-medicine almanacs; they are simple, direct, and convincing. Armed with directions designed for the latitude, say, of Boston, the amateur applies to the latitude of Washington the rules as to selection and care, and if his patient plants do not rebel against such unwise treatment, the experiment is reported as a success, and the right to pose ever after as an adviser in horticultural matters is gained. The neighbors of such amateur horticulturists are affected variously by these alleged successes. Some of them weakly copy the arrangements, while others seek to produce effects precisely unlike them. Hence result the kaleidoscopic effects which dazzle us in the environs of our cities. Charles Eliot, in his too brief career, preached the gospel of beauty to the dwellers in our cities and the suburbs. He accomplished much towards replacing formal beds of mismated colors by effective shrubs and commanding trees. No doubt he would have found in the present treatise just the material to recommend to the owners of small places in the vicinity of our cities.

It would not be a difficult task for a resident of our Eastern States to draw from the present work hints for useful combinations, provided due regard be had to the differences in climate. Selection of the more hardy would ensure safety and success. This treatise is, however, something more than a handbook of hints for beginners. It is replete with sound advice in relation to larger subjects, and could judiciously be used by the landscape architect in his interesting work. It may be commended, further, to those who care for such things as winter gardens, pleached alleys, and similar old-fashioned affairs. Matters like the following also find a place: weeping-trees and their uses, trees and shrubs for the sea-coast and for wind-swept places, for the water-side, and for streets. Many practical matters are touched in a fresh way; for instance, young trees and sunstroke (*i. e.*, of the trees themselves), hardy shrubs in the greenhouse, and the worthy use of roses. In short, all who are interested in the picturesqueness or in the quiet beauty of individual and clustered shrubs and trees, will find in these charming pages much of profit and interest. Moreover, a large part of the information is tabulated in a convenient manner for reference and for comparison.

The unprejudiced reader, after studying these chapters, will agree with the modest and truthful statement of the preface:

"It cannot be urged against this work that it travels along a path already well worn, for the subject of trees and shrubs for English gardens, though almost inexhaustible, has never been so fully treated and illustrated as it deserves. The book may have many defects, but its pages will show that an honest effort has been made to offer helpful and instructive information to the many who wish to know more of the beauty of trees and shrubs."

Daniel Ricketson and his Friends: Letters, Poems, Sketches, etc. Edited by his Daughter and Son, Anna and Walter Ricketson. With illustrations. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1902.

With much commending them to the reader, these memoirs have the prime defect of nowhere giving us in sequence the main facts and incidents of Mr. Ricketson's life. Mr. Sanborn's introductory sketch was written at the time of Mr. Ricketson's death and is dated July 18, 1898, but the day of his friend's death is not given, nor the day of his birth—the year of which, however (1813), can be inferred from various references to his age in Mr. Ricketson's journal and letters. On the other hand, we have his own careful and minute description of his person and character. He concludes that he "never could have passed for aught but an ordinary person," his modest stature, five feet three inches, being in harmony with such a view. Though quickly moved to sympathy with human or brute suffering, he did not consider himself "a particularly liberal or open-handed man." Many aspects of his mind and character, as revealed by his letters and journals, are interesting. He was a diligent reader and writer, in love with the world out of doors, observant, but in no wide or penetrating manner; Cowper his favorite author. He aspired to live the simple life, but with some qualifications: he liked the best English editions of his favorite books in fine bindings. Aspiring to the stoicism of Emerson, he fell far short of it, complaining of his health to a degree that Emerson would have thought felonious, and being very easily put out of mental equilibrium. He wrote a great deal of verse, but not much poetry. The concluding section of the book has numerous examples, several of them long drawn out. They have much sincerity contending with the artificiality of the literary amateur.

The best use of this book should be to encourage the average man to live more with nature and with books, but its main effect will probably be to add something to that stock of impressions of the Concord coterie which is in little need of further aggregation. Mr. Ricketson's sketches of Emerson, Alcott, Channing, Thoreau are better than many we have had heretofore, yet not equal to the best. He is no fulsome flatterer, finding Emerson's quality "less great and strong than good," and him "a recipient of the divine cordial in doses rather homœopathic." His relation to Thoreau, also, seems to have been less abject than that of some others. He accounted himself a less docile disciple than Blake and Brown.

But Thoreau is the hero of these pages who crowds all the others from their seats. First we have a sketch of him by Mr. Ricketson, then the correspondence of these two, then Sophie Thoreau's correspondence with Mr. Ricketson about her brother, then several other sets of letters to and from Thoreau's friends and admirers, including his English biographer, Henry S. Salt. Mr. Ricketson's acquaintance with Thoreau began in 1854 and continued till Thoreau's death in 1862. In the course of this period they visited each other many times and wrote each other with irregular infrequency. There is a pathetic letter of Ricketson's complaining of Thoreau's long silence, and Thoreau's elaborate reply, which

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

is hardly an apology: "This life is not for complaint but for satisfaction. I do not feel addressed by this letter of yours. It suggests only misunderstanding. Intercourse may be good, but of what use are complaints and apologies?" Our best glimpses of Thoreau are in his sister's letters. It is interesting to find her saving from Emerson's pruning hand some flowers of sentiment in Thoreau's published letters. As compared with his friend W. E. Channing, Thoreau was perfectly accessible. It is no wonder that Mr. Ricketson was disappointed in Thoreau's appearance if his sketch of him, here reproduced, was true to life. The portrait of Thoreau from the Ricketson photograph is quite different from the engraving based on it in Sanborn's 'Henry D. Thoreau,' and has no trace of the likeness to Emerson which is aggressive in the Rowse portrait of Thoreau. The three portraits of Mr. Ricketson are interesting, but far less so than two of his wife, one when she was twenty, and one when she was thirty-seven years old. We might well have been told more of one who was so beautiful.

The New Harmony Communities. By George Browning Lockwood. Marion, Ind.: The Chronicle Co. 1902. Pp. 282.

Nothing passes for being more like a last year's bird's-nest than an old newspaper, and yet the present picture of New Harmony, which gave promise of discoursing divine music, is an attractive mosaic tesselated preëminently from the New Harmony *Gazette*—a rare relic which the author made a pilgrimage to see and study on the very spot of its publication, not knowing probably where else it could be ferreted out. This weekly had pages of the same size as the *Nation*, nearly as many and as well printed. Its first issue was within six months after Owenites had stepped into the places of Rappites. Thanks to Paul Brown—a Paul Pry into true inwardness, who had entered the camp of Owen, and who printed as sarcastically as Diogenes was wont to speak—the paper betrays much to one who reads between the lines. From the first we see worms sapping all unseen at the root. In the track of such a leader, those at first timid became outspoken, nothing could be suppressed, and the journal unawares grew a source-book of local history, one doubly precious to Mr. Lockwood because unknown to or unheeded by previous writers.

Robert Owen first came to New Harmony in the spring of 1825, having already, through an agent, bought the whole settlement *en bloc* for $150,000. This establishment, founded by Rapp, had for ten years been the prosperous home of a thousand of his flock. These at once departed on steamboats, leaving the coast clear to the purchaser, who on May Day began to install his disciples there, repeating the occupation of the land of promise by Jews. After one single month of arranging the details of the Far West experiment, he left it in charge of deputies, on July 17 sailed from New York for England, and saw no more of his plantation until the following January. His preliminary constitution for a "community of equality," which he then at once brought forward, was, after discussion, adopted on February 5th. The dissenters, however, formed so large a minority of non-equalitarians that two offshoots sprouted out from the original stock and settled apart, divided further by mutual contempt than by distance. Still, all agreed on inviting Owen to continue in autocratic power, which he did. His address in the Hall on the 9th of May showed, with counsels of perfection, hopefulness on his part among a crowd who were already doubtful if not despairing. A year passed on, and his disappointments had been so vast that he bade farewell to that Harmony which had proved so discordant after his utmost endeavors and the outlay of $200,000, or much more than the half of all his fortune. But he went away whistling to keep his courage up and if possible that of his votaries. Returning within a year and for the last time, his optimism failed in the face of a complete collapse of the social aggregation.

Many secondary causes of Owen's discomfiture are obvious and have been often set forth as beacon lights to warn against breakers; but the cardinal cause was rather moral than physical. The contrast between stolid Rappites and wide-awake Owenites was, after all, in this most striking, that one sect was religious throughout, and the other was not. Rapp had powers not of this world to unify and stimulate his operatives. Lack of this to cast out the devils of laziness and licentiousness left Owen's multitude, who flocked around him for loaves and fishes, a veritable rope of sand whenever combined or distasteful toil was needed. When Owen had impoverished himself, as a good Samaritan, and could no longer grant physical help, his moral endeavors never flagged. Each year of American struggle was followed by as earnest a decade in Europe, and he died well-nigh a nonagenarian, but a philanthropist to the last. The seed he sowed has brought forth a hundredfold, as Mr. Lockwood shows, in more than one harvest.

French Cathedrals and Châteaux. By Clara Crawford Perkins. 2 vols., pp. viii., 284, and x., 299. Boston: Knight & Millet. 1903.

This popular book, of easy reading, with many unrelated details in the body of it, begins with some preparatory essays which may be thought to have received much care in their preparation. The tone of criticism, indeed, may be exemplified by the quotation from Robert Louis Stevenson of the passage where he becomes enthusiastic over cathedrals, page xvi., but that casual sort of estimation is in a way contradicted by the serious attempts at historical, constructional, and artistic study which follow. Chapter one is devoted to France of the Franks; chapters two and three are devoted to Gothic building; chapter four is devoted to Gothic windows, "glass and tracery"; chapter five is devoted to Gothic sculpture, and chapter six contains an historical outline. In all of these there is noticeable a constant reference to good authorities, and, mixed with these, reference to writers who have left sayings behind them—sayings which neither pretended to have nor can have any authority at all. Apparently there is no pretence on the author's part to any positive knowledge or strongly held opinions. It is, however, a recognized fact that the second-hand or third-hand knowledge and the not too strongly held opinions meet a popular demand, and that they are generally considered much more readable than the work of the scholar or of the critic.

Following these introductory chapters in volume one, are notices of seven of the great cathedrals of Northern France and three or four Gothic buildings which are not cathedrals. Viollet-le-Duc and Professor Moore of Harvard University, the two best known writers on Gothic art as a general subject of inquiry—good and trustworthy writers, too—are continually referred to. It is odd to see the two names turning up in one sentence or in two succeeding sentences so frequently. Ruskin's vague enthusiasm and his ill-aimed criticism are also constantly in evidence.

Volume two, being devoted to châteaux, is devoted also to the Renaissance. It opens with a very brief essay on the Renaissance in general, as seen in France, but this takes up only nine pages, and then follow chapters on the late Gothic strong castles of Pierrefonds and Loches and the Renaissance manor-houses of Langeais, Chaumont, and the other famous ones, alternating with the royal establishments of Fontainebleau, Versailles, and in Paris the Louvre and Tuileries. The characteristics of volume one are traceable again in volume two. A good instance of what has been named above as the writer's tentative way of going to work where the opinions of a well-chosen writer are compared with other and less important views, is in the note on page 10, where there is question of historical accuracy in Viollet-le-Duc's restoration of Pierrefonds. The accusations brought against the famous architect are not rightly seized, nor are the strongest points of his defence presented. It is rather fortunate that the writer has been so generally careful in avoiding statements of positive opinion, for she thinks that there is a mingling of Gothic with Renaissance art in Chambord, and asserts, apparently on her own authority, that the roof which crowns the walls of Chambord "is Gothic run riot," although it appears in the next sentence that its details "are loaded with heavy and coarse Renaissance ornaments." The illustrations are photographic views of the important buildings named; thirty-two of them devoted to the Gothic churches and as many to the fortresses and the neo-classic buildings of the second volume. They are generally reproductions of the more familiar photographs.

Vus du Dehors. Par Max Nordau. Paris: Alcan. 1903.

The admission of a volume to the series entitled "Bibliothèque de Philosophie Contemporaine" is a virtual pledge to its readers of a certain measure of dignified scientific objectivity in discussing questions of moment, particularly if occurring in the work of men whom the competent critics of their own race and speech unite in honoring. To expect uniform sedateness of deliberative opinion from the author of 'Degeneration' would, however, be a naïve proceeding. Yet Dr. Nordau, in his brief prefatory note to this collection of review articles on contemporary French writers, contends that the mere condition of being an outsider insures serenity to his conclusions through the negative influence of detachment from coteries and freedom from

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

local bias. This attempted analogy between contemporary foreign judgments and the final verdicts of posterity is radically misleading. In the present condition of international relations, is it conceivable that the literature and art of any flourishing country can be contemplated dispassionately by rivals? So far is this from being the case that the louder the professions of critical aloofness on the part of a foreign censor, the more alert should our suspicion be lest they cover sly attack or disparagement. The essays in question, which discuss novelists, poets, and playwrights with somewhat obtrusive pretensions to "scientific and philosophical criticism," are mostly occupied with the demolishing of established reputations, accompanied here and there by suggestions as to the superior genuineness of the corresponding article of Teutonic make. There is also the familiar turn for occasionally entertaining paradox (always deadly in earnest), and a dreary parade of scientific method and terms suggestive of formal lectures in morbid psychology.

The arbitrariness of Dr. Nordau's classifications appears in his promptly ranking Michelet among the *romanciers*. It is, from one point of view, indeed unfortunate that Michelet could never be dull; but does it follow that the only admissible conception of history belongs to those of whom it is here said (p. 13), "La chose importante pour eux, ce sont les recherches, ce n'est pas le récit. Les notes au bas des pages ont à leurs yeux plus de valeur que le texte"? And the same confusion in the use of terms of no doubtful connotation occurs in the elaborate endeavor to prove that Balzac was no realist—this, of the author of 'Le Curé de Tours,' the delineator of the 'Maison Vauquer.' That Balzac as a student of character applied to the full his marvellous power as a *voyant*, no one will deny; but the interpretations of human nature at which he arrived, proceeded from a minute daily observation as rigorous and painstaking as that of any inductive inquirer into the facts out of which he constructs his comprehensive theory. Precisely in the same spirit of one-sided appreciation, Dr. Nordau considers Maupassant as having shown from beginning to end of his career an exclusive maniacal predisposition for "un érotisme profondément pathologique," with at the same time a sharp eye for external detail, a combination rendering his work valuable not to the philosopher or the moralist, but to the alienist. What aptitude the last may possess for fine analytical discrimination, may be guessed from the juxtaposition, in an essay entitled "Trois Études de la Jalousie," of an incongruous trio named respectively Shakspere, Anatole France, and Lucien Mühlfeld.

We may pass over with the briefest mention three studies dealing with the still more perilously debatable ground of modern French poetry, entire comprehension of which demands somewhat more than the training of a scientific mind and a linguistic equipment sufficient for the grasping of a direct meaning. Mallarmé's enigmatic utterances (which we make no profession of either explaining or enjoying) are just the kind which the foreigner is only too disposed to hail with rapture or to sniff at with contempt. As Dr. Nordau prefers the latter course, we may well ask him what he would say of a French critic who should follow the same method in disposing of 'Atta Troll.'

More than half of the volume is occupied with reviews of contemporary dramatists, from Dumas *fils* to Rostand, special attention being paid to the moral problems raised in their various dramas. On the comedy of pure fun, illustrated in the work of Labiche, or of light and brilliant social satire such as 'Le Monde où l'on s'ennuie,' Dr. Nordau has no word to cast away; his concern is with playwrights who take themselves and their dramas in a spirit of moral gravity, and, as it were, pontify through the lips of their fictitious characters. In this connection, the younger Dumas stands, in his critic's eyes, for nothing more than the oracular mouthpiece of commonplace sentiment or opinion ("des solutions appartenant déjà au fonds immuable des tartiniers en chef du *Petit Journal*"), while the whole of his dramatic work is a special pleading on the issues involved in the playwright's equivocal position toward his own parents and society at large. Does "L'Ami des Femmes" bear directly on any phase of Dumas's life?

Examination of Brieux's plays offers an opportunity for a wholly irrelevant and digressional attack on M. Brunetière's sensational article of a few years ago, which impugned the pretensions of some scientific men by charging science in general with failure to carry out the rash prophecies of votaries. Theologians, says Dr. Nordau, had long before uttered the same sort of fulmination, which their obvious *intérêt de boutique* prevented scientific men from wasting time in refuting. But scorn and sarcasm are no reply. If Dr. Nordau, like the majority of his compeers who broke lances with M. Brunetière at the time, chooses to shirk the vital issue at stake by declaring that science is too much concerned with "serious questions" to pay heed to such trivial topics as the First Cause, the origin of evil, and the possibility of conscious existence after death, he and his ilk have still before them the hardest task of all, namely, that of diverting the oldest and strongest of intellectual instincts from the most permanently engrossing of all problems.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Augustin-Thierry, Gilbert. Conspirateurs et Gens de Police. Paris: Armand Colin. 3 fr. 50.
Baker, Harold. The Collegiate Church of Stratford-on-Avon, and Other Buildings of Interest in the Town and Neighborhood. (Bell's Cathedral Series.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.
Balch, T. W. Emériс Crusé. Philadelphia: Allen, Lane & Scott.
Brown, Alice. The Mannerings. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Buck, J. H. Old Plate: Its Makers and Marks. The Gorham Mfg. Co.
Burgess, E. S. History of Pre-Clusian Botany in its Relation to Aster. (Memoirs of the Torrey Botanical Club, Vol. X.). New York: Published by the Torrey Botanical Club.
Cook, Prof. A. S. Biblical Quotations in Old English Prose Writers, Second Series. (Yale Bicentennial Publications.) London: Edward Arnold; New York: Scribner's.
Cook, E. T. A Popular Handbook to the Greek and Roman Antiquities in the British Museum. Macmillan. $3.25.
Cook, G. C. Roderick Taliaferro. Macmillan.
Dubnow, S. M. Jewish History. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society.
Galdós, B. P. Marianela. Translated by J. Geddes and F. M. Josselyn. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Gerrare, Wirt. Greater Russia, the Continental Empire of the Old World. Macmillan.
Griffis, W. E. Young People's History of Holland. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Haldane, R. B. The Pathway to Reality. E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.
Hall, W. S. Descriptive Geometry. With portfolio of plates. D. Van Nostrand Co. $3.50.
Helps, Arthur. The Spanish Conquest in America. Vol. III. New ed. Edited by M. Oppenheim. John Lane.
Heysinger, I. W. The Light of China. Philadelphia: Research Pub. Co.
Hiatt, Charles. Notre Dame de Paris. (Bell's Handbook to Continental Churches.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Jones, J. P. India's Problem: Krishna or Christ? Fleming H. Revell & Co. $1.50.
Keller, Helen. The Story of My Life. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Ladenburg, A. Lectures on the History of the Development of Chemistry since the Time of Lavoisier. Translated by Leonard Dobbin. Edinburgh: The Alembic Club; Chicago: The University Press.
Le Blond, Mrs. Aubrey. True Tales of Mountain Adventure for Non-Climbers Young and Old. E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.
Lyndon, Lamar. Storage Battery Engineering. McGraw Publishing Co.
Marshall, Beatrice. The Siege of York. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
McCulloch, Hugh. Written in Florence. London: J. M. Dent & Co.
Monteith, John. Some Useful Animals. (Eclectic School Readings.) American Book Co. 50 cents.
Owen, Rye. Red-Headed Gill. H. Holt & Co.
Price, W. L., and Johnson, W. M. Home Building and Furnishing. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.
Rich, C. E. The New Boy at Dale. Harpers.
Rosenberg, Adolf. Leonardo da Vinci. Translated by J. Lohse. Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Scidmore, Eliza R. Winter India. Century Co.
The English Bible. Vol. I.: Genesis to Joshua. (King James version.) London: David Nutt.
Wiener, Leo. Anthology of Russian Literature. Part II.: The Nineteenth Century. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.
Wilkins, Mary E. The Wind in the Rose-Bush. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Woodburn, J. A. Political Parties and Party Problems in the United States. (American Politics.) G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.
Zangwill, I. The Grey Wig. Macmillan. $1.50.

The Nation says:

"We are not dependent upon plot . . . we are only too well satisfied to go on with such delightful people, and especially through such delightful scenes, on any terms. . . . This is old ground, but the unusual method of locomotion and a fresh touch give it a new and living interest. . . . A light, graceful, accurate mention devoted to some places and very satisfactory fulness to others. . . . It should be a good practical guide, too, to those about to go over the same course, while its charming descriptions of travel afford an ample new fund of pleasure, tinged with envy here and there to the stay-at-homes."

The Lightning Conductor

(4th Impression in press, $1.50)

Henry Holt & Co., N. Y.

THE LEADERS OF PUBLIC OPINION IN IRELAND.

FLOOD GRATTAN O'CONNELL

By the Right Hon. W. E. H. Lecky. New Edition. 2 vols., crown 8vo, gilt top. $4.00 *net*. By mail or express, $4.25.

This New Edition is greatly enlarged and rewritten, and contains a new introduction.

LONGMANS, GREEN, & CO.
93 Fifth Avenue, New York.

Read the KINDRED OF THE WILD.
By Charles G. D. Roberts. Price, $2.00.
L. C. PAGE & COMPANY, Pubs., Boston.

"The Mosher Books"

As Easter Gifts "The Mosher Books"

sold singly or in sets,
are especially desirable.

A COMPLETE LIST,
in itself an exquisite bit of bookmaking,
sent postpaid on request.

THOMAS B. MOSHER
PORTLAND, MAINE

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Arnold Constable & Co.

Spring and Summer

Underwear.

Men's, Women's, and Children's

Silk, Silk and Wool, All Wool, Merino, Lisle Thread, and Cotton Underwear from the Best Foreign and Domestic Makers.

Broadway & 19th st.

NEW YORK.

Reciprocity

Ready the first of March.

By Prof. J. LAURENCE LAUGHLIN
of Chicago University and
H. PARKER WILLIS
of Washington and Lee University.
8vo, net $2.00 (Postage extra.)
THE BAKER & TAYLOR CO., New York

A NEW BOOK ON TAXATION.

A Treatise on the Power of Taxation

State and Federal, in the United States.

By FREDERICK N. JUDSON of the St. Louis Bar

A book not only for lawyers, but for economists and all thoughtful students of the problems of taxation. The limits of the taxing power, State and Federal, which must control any discussion of taxation or tax reform, are here fully presented.

$6.00 net. $6.30 delivered.

The F. H. Thomas Law Book Company, St. Louis

ELLIS & ELVEY,

Dealers in Old and Rare Books, Manuscripts, and Prints,

29 NEW BOND STREET, LONDON, ENG.

NEW ILLUSTRATED CATALOGUE (No. 100) now ready, containing a short account of the bookselling business carried on continuously on the same premises since 1728.

FAMILY HISTORY—Mr. TUDOR SHERWOOD, with many years' experience of Records and Record-searching in Great Britain and Ireland, can now accept commissions to gather Record-evidence of *Family History, Descent,* and the *Right to Bear Arms.*
Address 50 Becroft Road, Brockley, London, S. E.

ASK FOR

CROWELL'S POETS

Books on Scientific Socialism.—Catalogue free CHARLES H. KERR & Co., 56 Fifth Avenue, Chicago.

BARNES' SPRING BOOKS

A NOVEL of exceptional interest and power. "The originality of conception; the quality of atmosphere imparted to each changing scene; and the clear and effective analysis of character are very striking and unusual."

THE STUMBLING BLOCK
By EDWIN PUGH
Illustrated by R. M. CROSBY
12mo, Cloth, $1.50

LESSONS, music and games, with illustrations, so planned that small girls can be taught by its use to do neat, intelligent work in their homes, using home materials and utensils. Mothers will find it helpful in training their young daughters in the art of home-making.

THE CHILD HOUSEKEEPER
By ELIZABETH COLSON and ANNA G. CHITTENDEN
With introduction by JACOB A. RIIS
8vo, Cloth, Illustrated, $1.80 net

AN ORIGINAL and unique contribution to Revolutionary history. While not condoning Arnold's treason, Mr. Todd shows that four times he saved the cause of the colonies, and gives the true reason, overlooked by most historians, for his betrayal of his country.

THE REAL BENEDICT ARNOLD
By CHARLES BURR TODD
Author of "The True Aaron Burr," etc.
12mo, Cloth, Illustrated, $1.20 net

A NOVEL of the modern woman. From a wilfulness born of confidence in her position in Club, Society and at home, Ursula Keith learns to accept life rather as she finds it than as she would have planned it.

LIFE'S COMMON WAY
By ANNIE ELIOT TRUMBULL
Author of "Mistress Content Cradock," etc.
12mo, Cloth, $1.50

Catalogue free to any address.

A. S. BARNES & CO., 156 Fifth Ave., New York

On the Physics and Physiology of Protoplasmic Streaming in Plants.

By ALFRED J. EWART, D.Sc., Ph.D., F.L.S. Royal 8vo. With seventeen Illustrations. $2.90.

For sale by all Booksellers. Send for Catalogue.

OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS, American Branch, 91 and 93 Fifth Avenue, New York.

GINN & COMPANY
publish a great variety of books on
Nature Study.
A complete list will be sent on application. Correspondence is invited.

GINN & COMPANY, Publishers,
Boston, New York, Chicago, London
San Francisco, Atlanta, Dallas, Columbus.

The Roadmender

By
MICHAEL FAIRLESS

"It is for companionship, not a passing acquaintance."
N. Y. Times Saturday Review.

A Country Girl Lost and Reclaimed.
MARY NORTH
"Has the fascinating impress of fact."
—N. Y. WORLD.
A Novel by LUCY RIDER MEYER. *$1.50*

Americans in Process

A Settlement Study of the North and West Ends, Boston. By residents and Associates of the South End House. Edited by Robert A. Woods, Head of the House. 12mo, $1.50 net. Postpaid, $1.64.

HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & CO., Publishers.

IF YOU WANT TO KNOW ALL ABOUT Ex-Speaker Thomas B. Reed's great library of MODERN ELOQUENCE, and if you would like a handsome portfolio of specimen pages, including fine photogravure illustrations, address the publishers, JOHN D. MORRIS & CO., 1163 Commonwealth Bldg., Philadelphia.

REMINGTON
Standard Typewriter
327 BROADWAY, NEW YORK

MATTHEW ARNOLD IN THE "NINETEENTH CENTURY."

"The New York NATION—a newspaper which I read regularly and with profit, a newspaper which is the best, so far as my experience goes, of all American newspapers, and one of the best newspapers anywhere."

THE NATION

an independent weekly journal, was established in 1865. Its contributors include the most prominent names in literature, science, and art, both in this country and abroad. It is emphatically found in the homes of people of culture and refinement. No intelligent American, desirous of keeping abreast of the best political and literary thought of the day, can afford to be without it. Subscription price, $3.00 a year, postpaid.

Address
PUBLISHER OF THE NATION,
208 Broadway, New York City.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED